NILES' WEEKLY REGISTER.

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THE PAST—THE PRESENT—FOR THE FUTURE.

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☞ In the last paragraph of our article in the last Register under the head of "Religious Newspapers and Controversies," a mistake occurred which we deem it proper to correct. The word "insolent" should be "*innocent*," so as to read "the most innocent remarks, uttered in the most general terms" &c. The word will be found in the 6th line from the beginning of the paragraph.

CHOLERA. This disease still lingers at Pittsburgh. The board of health reported two deaths for the week immediately preceding the 30th ult.

In *Missouri*, the disease has been peculiarly fatal. *Palmyra*, a comparatively small village, lost between the 1st and 15th ult. upwards of 100 of its inhabitants. At *St. Charles* many of the best citizens had fallen victims. At *St. Louis*, the cholera was subsiding.

The Vandalia Whig says, the cholera still continues in Illinois, and although its progress is not rapid, deaths are occurring almost daily. At Carrollton it has broken out with such malignity as to suspend all business and clothe the town in gloom. At Galena, there had been between 30 and 40 deaths from the 19th June to the 12th July.

In *Ohio* the cholera prevailed in many places; at Cincinnati it was on the increase; 8 deaths occurred there on the 1st inst. It had declined at Columbus. In the penitentiary at that place there had been 29 cases and 7 deaths amongst the convicts, up to the 30th ult. Out of 203 convicts about 100 had had the premonitory symptoms.

In *Kentucky*, it had greatly subsided, though in some places it was making fearful inroads. In Bardstown the family of judge Rowan, late U. S. senator, has been severely visited by this inscrutable scourge. His sons William and A. H.; his son William's wife; grand-daughter, Miss Steele, and his sister Mrs. Kelly, had died, as also, several of his slaves. His son John was sick, but not dangerous. Maysville has sustained a serious loss in the death of Mr. Charles E. Wolf, its late mayor. He was buried on the 25th ult. with all the respect due to his station and eminent services as the chief executive officer of the city.

Hagerstown. Three deaths by cholera having at different intervals occured there during the season, of persons from the line of the canal, a meeting of the citizens of this town recently took place, at which a committee of ten gentlemen of the first respectability was appointed to examine into the condition of its health. This committee report that after full inquiry and careful investigation, they find that from the spring of the present year, down to the 29th ult. the citizens have enjoyed good health, and that no case of epidemic cholera has originated there.

LATE FROM BUENOS AYRES. By the brig Amanda, capt. Yorke, Buenos Ayres papers have been received to June 22d inclusive.

The eleventh legislature of the province convened at Buenos Ayres, 31st May, on which day, governor Balcarce delivered a message containing among other paragraphs the following:

"The minister sent by the government of Washington, whose expected arrival was announced to you in the preceding year, and whom it was resolved to await in order to come to an explanation relative to the destruction by main force of the colony in the Island de la Soledad, (one of the Falklands), by the captain of the United States corvette *Lexington*, did in effect arrive, and was received in the character of charge d'affaires: you are, Messrs. Representatives, already acquainted with the state of this negotiation. The government, in order to follow it up, has appointed a minister, and has notified this appointment to that of Washington; and he will shortly be despatched with the competent instructions to obtain satisfaction and reparation for so great an injury.

"The re-settlement of the Falkland Islands was immediately resolved on, in the mode that the other attentions of the province allowed; but soon an event occurred as unexpected as disagreeable. The government has informed you that the captain of his Britannic majesty's sloop of war *Clio*, sustained by a superior force, took possession of the islands in the name of his sovereign. Then it likewise stated to you what would be its conduct. It has therefore directed its minister at London, that, energetically remonstrating against the violation of the most sacred principles of the law of nations, he demand the restitution, and seek such satisfaction as becomes the justice and honor of both governments, by those means which probity, good faith and sound reason dictate."

[Jour. C[illegible]

THE OPPRESSED SOUTH. Some of our southern fellow citizens complain that the laws passed by congress to counteract foreign legislation, and to protect our domestic manufactures, as well as American labor and capital, embarrass their trade, and are producing with them, poverty, distress and ruin. To all who will dispassionately examine the subject, these complaints will be found to be visionary and unfounded. It is the grain growing states, that have reason to complain still of the state of the markets and our foreign trade.

From 1st October, 1831, till 30th Sept. 1832, there were imported into Pennsylvania from foreign countries, goods, &c. amounting to the sum of $10,678,358.

And yet, from Pennsylvania there was exported in the same year, of domestic produce,	$2,008,991
Of foreign do.	3,516,066
Whereas, in the same year, there was imported into South Carolina,	1,213,725
And the exports of her domestic produce were,	7,685,833
Do. Imports into Alabama,	306,845
Exports of do.	2,733,554

South Carolina, with a population of only 581,458, more than one-half of whom are slaves, has received during the last year of her agricultural produce, nearly eight millions of dollars, whilst Pennsylvania, with a population of 1,347,672, received for the whole export of her domestic produce and manufactures, little more than two millions of dollars.

Alabama, with a population of 308,997, more than one-third of whom are slaves, received as above for her cotton and sugar, nearly three millions of dollars. In this state of trade and commerce, who are the sufferers? Surely not the southern planters. It is to be remembered, [illegible] which does not admit a barrel of our flour, or a bushel of our wheat, to be sold in her market. The duties on foreign flour and grain are so great, as to exclude them from the English market, except in a season of scarcity, to prevent a famine, and yet southern planters tell us that it is unreasonable to impose duties on British manufactures, for the protection of our own labor, capital and domestic manufactures.

The total of exports of product as stated, shows that the labor of the south is, under the existing laws, much better paid for, than in the grain-growing and free labor state of Pennsylvania, and even if the product of single plantations be considered, with reference to the labor used on them, they equally show the advantages of the southern planter over the grain grower of the middle states.

In the Savannah Republican of May 29th, is a statement of the produce for the last year, of three sugar plantations in East Florida.

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The first plantation produced to each hand for the year, $372

The second plantation, 370

The third do. 475

The aggregate, as given, is, that 79 hands produced $30,600, which is 387 dollars for each hand, and greatly exceeds the average product of the free labor of the north. Is it not marvellous, that our southern fellow citizens, with the advantages which they possess, should complain of the market and commercial regulations? It is, however, with them, as it is with some individuals in every society, that those persons, who, by the bounty of Providence, have least cause to complain, are the ones who talk most of their imaginary evils.

[*Franklin Repository.*

BRITISH WEST INDIES. The Journal of Commerce has been permitted to copy the following extract of a letter from our consul at Jamaica, addressed to captain Newton, of the United States ship the St. Louis, on the eve of his departure from that port. By it we regret to find that the most distressing apprehensions are entertained for the safety of the white inhabitants, in consequence of the arrangements now making in the British parliament with respect to the emancipation of the slaves in the British West India possessions. We trust that our government will lose no time in placing a naval force in that quarter, for the better security of the lives and property of our citizens.

Consulate of the U. States, Kingston, Jam. June 30, 1833.

Dear sir—Having understood that you intend sailing to-morrow, I should do great injustice to my feelings if I did not testify to you my sincere and most grateful thanks for the courtesy and distinguished attention I received from you during my late visit on board the St. Louis, and without meaning to reflect in the least on the character of any one gallant officer in the service, have only to say that if similar attentions were more generally paid to our accredited agents abroad, it would add greatly to their respectability in the eyes of foreigners, and thereby enable them the more fully to secure the interests of their fellow citizens. [After some further remarks in high commendation of the St. Louis, her officers, and all pertaining to her as a ship of war, the letter proceeds—] Your departure from this place at such a critical moment as the present, is not only regretted by myself and family, but by the entire population of *Kingston and its environs.* You are aware, sir, that the views of ministers, as regards the *emancipation of the slaves,* &c. in the different colonies, have been received here, and it has not given satisfaction to either of the parties interested, and least of all the slaves. It is generally therefore believed, that as soon as the particulars shall have been promulgated throughout the island, poisoned as the minds of the negroes now are, *that they will make an attempt to emancipate themselves,* and the consequences in that case, cannot be otherwise than *fatal to every white inhabitant, foreigner or otherwise.* Whether these things will take place as soon as is generally expected, I cannot take upon me to say; perhaps from the precautions which the government are now taking, a considerable time may yet intervene, before the negroes venture to carry into effect their plans; and as there is a great deal of "*American property and interest in the colony,*" it behooves our go- therefore most earnestly entreat you, to impress upon the mind of the honorable secretary of the navy, the propriety of keeping *a vessel of war in this neighborhood,* and occasionally to visit this port, *to communicate confidentially with me.*

Although your time has been very short here, I trust you have both seen and heard enough to justify the application I have made, for the presence of an armed vessel, as soon as possible, and if it should please the honorable secretary, from the known reputation of your character for gentlemanly conduct, combined as it is with all the necessary prudence which the commander of a ship of war should possess, coming here at such a time, and *under such circumstances,* I know no one who would be more agreeable to me, and the authorities generally, than you, sir.

With my best thanks to all your gentlemanly officers, for the kindness and attentions thus individually evinced towards me, during my late visit on board the "St. Louis." I am, dear sir, with best wishes for your honor and happiness, your very sincere friend and faithful servant, ROBERT MONROE HARRISON.

LATEST FROM PORTUGAL. Captain Howland of the brig Betsey & Jane, at N. Bedford, from St. Michael's, which he left on the 29th June, reports that four or five days previous to his sailing, a schooner arrived at that place, in four and a half days from Oporto, with a few wounded soldiers from Don Pedro's army. She brought accounts of Don Pedro having received an addition of troops from England and France, and that 5,000 soldiers had embarked on board steamers at Oporto, destination unknown.—These accounts were received with much satisfaction at St. Michael's, and hopes were entertained that the struggle would soon terminate favorably to the cause of Donna Maria. The accounts, however, previous to the above, were of a nature not very flattering to Don Pedro's friends, and these last, inspired them with new hopes. At Madeira, 14th June, there were 3,000 of Don Miguel's best troops. Every thing was quiet and the inhabitants did not entertain the least fear of Don Pedro's succeeding.

WELCOME OF GEN. CASS IN DETROIT. At a meeting of the citizens of Detroit, on the 23d ult. a committee was appointed, who in pursuance of their instructions, addressed a note to gen. Cass, then on a visit to that city, in the following terms:

"*Detroit, July* 24, 1833.

"*Hon. Lewis Cass, secretary of war.*

"*Sir*—The citizens of Detroit, your neighbors and friends, who have so long had an opportunity of witnessing your important public services, and the admirable qualities which, happily blended, adorn your private character and worth, gladly avail themselves of the occasion which your temporary visit to this place affords them to solicit your acceptance of a public dinner, at such time as may best comport with your convenience.

"Cherishing, as we do, the recollection of the social and friendly relations and intercourse, that so happily characterized the period of your gubernatorial functions over the territory, an opportunity to revive, even temporarily, those happy recollections, would be gratefully appreciated, and particularly by that portion of our citizens who have long had the pleasure of an acquaintance with yourself and your excellent and amiable family.

"Happy in being the organ through which the citizens of Detroit respectfully present to you, sir, this small tribute of their respect, permit us to add the expression of our unalterable wishes for your health, welfare and happiness."

To this note the following answer was returned:

"*Detroit, July* 24, 1833.

"*Gentlemen*—Be pleased to accept for yourselves, and to communicate to the citizens of Detroit, my acknowledgments, for the kind invitation I have received, to accept from them a public dinner.

"The time at my disposal will not allow me the pleasure of meeting them upon such an occasion. But this proof of their regard is not less welcome to me, and is but a continuation of that kindness which for eighteen years I have experienced from them in the relations of

"In whatever circumstances I may be placed, the recollection of what I owe to the confidence and good will of the citizens of Detroit will always be present with me. I am, gentlemen, with regard, your obedient servant, LEW. CASS."

IMPORTANT TO VOYAGERS AND SHIP OWNERS. A case was lately tried in the court of common pleas, New York, wherein an emigrant to this country brought an action for damages against the owners of a ship in which he had engaged a passage to this country from Liverpool. The ship with her cargo and passengers on board had actually proceeded on the voyage; but being materially damaged by a gale on the third or fourth day, to return or sink was found inevitable. The passengers were consequently disembarked at Liverpool; and therefore demanded another passage immediately by the same ship owners, or to have their paid fares returned. Neither was done; and

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the plaintiff in the suit engaged passage in another packet; and having arrived at New York, he brought his action to recover the amount of the fare paid; and of the expenses to which he was necessitated by the failure of the first voyage. The passage money was 16 dollars.

The learned judge in his summing up, charged the jury on the law and the facts, and laid it down as law, that in cases of the payment of passage money, and the consideration not being rendered, nor the passage completed, those contracting to carry the passengers, as common carriers, were bound to execute their agreement, and, if not done, they were liable for the amount paid them. That there was no distinction in law between freight and passage, both being alike in the same principle of maritime law, which requires the carrying of the freight and passage money as agreed.

The jury returned a verdict for plaintiff of $16, with 6 cents costs. [*Phil. Sentinel.*

THE INDIAN CHARACTER. The Richmond Compiler relates the following interesting incident, strikingly illustrative of that exalted trait in the Indian character which holds with unshaken firmness to the observance of a plighted faith, be the circumstances what they may under which the pledge was given:

When general Scott, in his late campaign arrived at the American encampment in the north west, he found three Indians prisoners—under a charge of murdering the whites. The evidence against them was slight—and an application had been sent on to Washington to obtain their discharge. But the president had gone to the Hermitage, and the secretary of war to Detroit. No answer was of course, obtained. In the mean time the cholera broke out among the American troops in the camp on Rock river. Many became victims. One of the three Indian prisoners also took it and died.

The general seeing the danger they were exposed to, determined on letting the two survivors out of confinement—and told them if they would confine themselves to the island in the river, he would permit them to go there. Their word being pledged, he directed them to go to the extreme part of the island, where they might keep somewhat out of the way of our troops. They accordingly repaired to the quarter where he had directed them to go; but they never once left the island—although they might easily have made their escape. Meantime the cholera spread, and the danger thickened. The general then told them that he would permit them to go to their tribe, upon condition that they would return to the camp as soon as he gave them notice that the cholera was gone. They assented to the terms and went home.

These men were under a charge of murder—and might have lost their lives if they were put upon their trial. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the moment gen. Scott had determined to hold his great council with the Indians, he informed the two prisoners that they must come in—and they did not hesitate to do so. They repaired among the first Indians to the American encampment.

The reader will be pleased to hear that they were ultimately acquitted—though one of them had to pledge himself to attend as a witness against another Indian, who was charged with murdering the whites. This duty [illegible]

INDIAN LANDS, &c. At the time of writing the following letter, *Washington* was president, and Mr. *Jefferson* his secretary of state:

Philadelphia, Aug. 10, 1791.

To general Knox.

Dear sir—I have now the honor to return the petition of Mr. Moultrie on behalf of the South Carolina Yazoo company. Without noticing that some of the highest functions of sovereignty are assumed in the very papers which he annexes as his justification, I am of opinion that government should firmly maintain this ground: That the Indians have a right to the occupation of their lands, independent of the states within whose chartered limits they happen to be: That until they cede them by treaty, no act of a state can give a right to such lands: That neither under the present constitution, nor the ancient confederation, had any state, or person, a right to treat with the Indians, without the consent of the general government; that that consent has never been given to any treaty for the cession of the lands in question: That the government is determined to exert its energy for the patronage and protection of the rights of the Indians, and the preservation of peace between the United States and them; and that if any settlements are made on the lands not ceded by them, *without the previous consent of the United States*, the government will think itself bound, not only to declare to the Indians that such settlements are without the authority or protection of the United States, but to remove them also by force.

It is in compliance with your request, my dear sir, that I submit these ideas to you, to whom it belongs to give place to them, or to such others as your better judgment shall prefer, in answer to Mr. Moultrie.

TH. JEFFERSON.

DARING ROBBERY. An extensive and daring robbery was committed in Rutland, Vt. on the night of the 24th inst. Some villain entered the dwelling house of William Page, esq. cashier of the bank, and stole money to the amount of nearly $7,000. The money was contained in a small trunk, which was carried to the bedroom of Mr. Page for safe keeping, regularly locked, and the key deposited in his vest pocket. The rogue must have entered the bedroom, taken the key from the pocket while the family were asleep, and departed with the trunk, which was found rifled in the north parlor; and the bank keys in the small yard in the front of the house. The bills were, we learn, mostly of the Rutland bank. *One thousand dollars reward* is offered for the recovery of the money.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT. In the British house of commons, on the 13th of June, the solicitor general moved for leave to introduce a bill to amend the laws relating to debtors. We have not seen the bill itself: but the remarks of the solicitor general, on the subject of his motion, give a very general account of its provisions. He stated, that his principal object was to give a remedy against the property, instead of the person, of the debtor. The first provision of the bill would be, to allow immediate execution upon all bills and bonds, when they become due, dispensing with many of the proceedings at present in use. On a summons being issued, execution is to issue forthwith, unless security is given to the court. The debtor is to be brought before a commissioner, and if he refuses to exhibit and surrender his property, is to be committed to prison. The creditor is to be entitled to a remedy against all kinds of property possessed by the debtor. Power is to be given to debtors to make a surrender of their property, in which case, the creditors, by a majority of four-fifths, may give him a certificate of discharge. To obtain money with an intent to defraud, is declared a misdemeanor, as is also the absconding of the debtor, or the stating of a false account in the surrender of his property. Imprisonment for debt is proposed to be abolished, except in cases attended with fraud, but where a creditor makes oath before a magistrate that his debtor is about to abscond to a foreign country, the latter may be imprisoned. [*Boston Pat.*

Extract from a gentleman who visited the scene of the awful occurrence which it describes, the morning after it took place.

A respectable citizen of Hampshire county, Va. of the name of Arnold, who carried on the business of tanner, had been to Alexandria to sell a load of leather, was returning on Thursday, the 25th ult. travelling on horseback by the stage road, when about ten miles below Aldie, in Loudon county, the appearance of a heavy cloud warned him to seek shelter for himself and horse. He accordingly rode up to a stable at the side of the road, where the stage stopped to change horses and having obtained permission of the stage driver, put his horse into one of the stalls. The driver at this time had the four stage horses out before the door—three of them were in a cluster, and a few paces from the door, the fourth was detached a little distance from the rest.

Mr. Arnold was standing in the stable door, calmly viewing the threatening cloud as it thickened and rolled over head, flashing and roaring in awful and terrific gran-

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deur. It was not long that he stood thus: a cataract of electric fire descended upon the stable, rending it from the ridge pole to the sill. Mr. Arnold was struck dead! —the three horses near the stable door were killed, and the driver knocked down and so stunned that he remained for a time, insensible—*His life was evidently preserved by the accidental circumstance of his having a silk handkerchief in the crown of his hat.*

Our informant saw the hat and handkerchief; the rim and the top of the hat were severed from the crown, a large piece taken out of the latter; the several pieces were cut asunder as neatly as if it had been done with a sharp instrument. The handkerchief was seared or scorched, as if a red hot iron had passed quickly over it. A small reddish mark was perceptible on one of the driver's cheeks, but whether from lightning or not was uncertain; besides this there was not the slightest appearance of its effect on any part of his body. He was entirely free from any pain about the head, though he complained of a soreness in his breast. [*Norfolk Herald.*

DISEASE AMONG CATTLE. The following is from one of our most respectable farmers in the county of Philadelphia. [*Penn. Inquirer.*

To the editor of the Inquirer.

Sir—A disease—name unknown to the writer—is prevalent among the horned cattle and horses in the neighborhood of Frankford, in this county; and my object in publicly stating this fact, is to elicit, if possible, through the medium of your journal, some information touching the disease, its cause, its cure, or what is most desirable, an "ounce of prevention." Within the last fortnight, or three weeks, upwards of nine cows and six or seven horses have died in the immediate vicinity of the village, and all, so far as I can learn, were carried off in the same way. The writer of this communication has lost, of a stock of four cows and three horses, two of the former and one of the latter, all having died within ten days. My cows and horse were apparently in health *three hours previous to death!* and in every instance they were found *dead* without exhibiting any symptoms of disease. I am told, however, that a horse of one of my neighbors exhibited uneasiness and a kind of vertigo a few hours previous to death, but that no symptoms of disease were visible in the morning—the animal having died in the evening. I had a post mortem examination of one of my cows, but could discover nothing in the stomach, bowels, or paunch to produce death—these parts of the animal exhibited a healthy appearance. The abdomens of the cows and horse were all much swollen *after* death. B.

August 1st.

P. S. Cow well, apparently, at 2, P. M. dead at half past 5.

Cow well, apparently, at 10 in the evening; found dead and cold at 5, next morning.

Horse well at 2 o'clock, dead at half past 4.

ETYMOLOGY. The Nantucket Inquirer published the following extract from a lecture delivered at Boston, by John Pickering, esq. on the subject of languages generally:

"In geography, the name of *Cape Horn* is commonly associated with the idea of *a horn;* and we often hear of a sea-word is altogether different; this extremity of the continent was called by the Spaniards *Cabo de Horno*, meaning cape of the furnace, or Cape Furnaces, which corresponds to the name of the adjacent land, called *Terra del Fuego*, or land of fire. In our own neighborhood, too, the name of *Martha's Vineyard* has been sadly corrupted; and upon that corruption has been founded an ancient story that it was given by an Indian chief to his daughter Martha, as her portion.

"We will leave the story to our poets to embellish their works of imagination; but the sober truth of history is, that it was so named from MARTIN WYNGARD'S land, now shortened to *Martha's Vineyard.*

"Again; the familiar exclamation on hailing, "ship a hoy!" is derived from the same root, and is substantially the same word with the ancient exclamation used at the tilts and tournaments of the knights—that is, ho! or in French, *ho la*, that is *stop*. The same expression among landsmen, is applied to vehicles moved on land by horses and other animals, but is corrupted into the well known exclamation, *wo* or *hwo*, that is *stop* or stand still."

THE DUKE OF NEWCASTLE.

From the Nottingham (England) Review.

On Wednesday forenoon, we observed placarded on the walls of this town an address from the earl of Lincoln, heir apparent to the dukedom of Newcastle, to the electors of the south eastern division of the county of Nottingham, offering himself as a candidate for the representation of that portion of Nottinghamshire, and at the same time stating that he should be at Newark market that day (Wednesday), at Bingham yesterday, and at Southwell this day. The same day's post brought us a long communication from Newark, being an alphabetical list of one hundred and thirteen persons who have been ejected from their houses in that borough, under the principle of "*May I not do what I like with my own?*" Probably we shall print the entire list before long; in the meantime we shall now make a few extracts, and the first name is—

Anderson, Peter, Balderton gate, rent £4, self and family tenants for forty years, value of premises £40, voted for Wilde.

Bates. John, Wilson street, rent £7 10s. father and self tenants fifty-eight years, value £120. Wilde.

Birkett, Wm. Farndon road, £18 rent, father and self tenants fifty-six years—Wilde.

Beech, Wm. Stodman street, rent £35, self and family tenants for *one hundred and fifty* years, did not vote at all, having refused to take the oath.

Carver, James, sen. Norton Disney, not an elector, but known to be favorable to the independent cause. (His son's tavern was one of Wilde's committee houses).

Gardner, Thomas, Beaumond street, rent £18, *did not vote*, but was present at a dinner! Had expended £450 on the duke's premises.

Lowe, Mrs. Wilson street, £8 10s. son voted for Wilde.

Parkinson, Thomas, Wilson street, rent £8, self and father tenants 46 years—Wilde.

Rawden, Miss, Wilson street, rent £6—*making favors for the blues!!*

Thorpe, James, Market place, rent £22, self, father and grandfather tenants 100 years, and expended great sums on the premises—voted for Willoughby and Wilde.

With numerous instances of this kind, where families have been ejected from tenements in which they have been resident time out of mind—where widows were turned out of their houses because of the manner in which their sons have voted—where persons had expended more than the full value of their premises in improvements, and yet were compelled to quit without remuneration—nay, where even the fact of a milliner having made favors for the opposite party, was deemed a sufficient ground for depriving her of her house—we wonder that any relative of the duke of Newcastle should have the effrontery to show his face as a candidate in Newark.

☞The preceding is a fine specimen of English "liberty" which has been so much boasted of, for several centuries—not that persons were "*reformed*" because they had not pleased "his grace," the duke of Newcastle, in the manner of voting—for England is not the only country in which great men "reward their friends and punish their enemies," for opinion's sake! It is as severely demanded that persons should "*kiss the black stone,*" and say "*God is God, and Mahomet* [*or any body else*] *is his prophet,*" in the United States, as on the lands of the duke of Newcastle, or at the temple of Mecca—but, perhaps, not quite so generally complied with!!! The pilgrims at Mecca, however, have this advantage—they know on which *side* to "kiss the black stone"—but our devotees are often required to kiss on *both* sides, and *all* sides—to kiss off, what they had kissed on—to watch the rolling of the stone, and kiss its very bottom!*

But we insert this article chiefly to shew the condition of the English peasantry. The family of one man had been successive TENANTS *for one hundred and fifty years*, and so on! We have always thought that beautiful English song, "Ere around the huge oak," &c. exposed disgusting facts, in preferring as a boast that thy [illegible] generations, and a dependent still—with a hope that the fourth descent would also be dependent.

TREATY WITH NAPLES.

From the Salem Commercial Advertiser.

Convention between the government of the United States of America, and his majesty the king of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, to terminate the reclamations of said government for the depredations inflicted upon American commerce by Murat, during the years 1809, 1810, 1811 and 1812.

The government of the United States of America, and his majesty the king of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, desiring to terminate the reclamations advanced by said government against his said majesty, in order that the merchants of the U. States may be indemnified for the losses inflicted upon them by Murat, by the depredations, seizures, confiscations and destruc-

*Take an instance—Mr. *Webster's* speech, on Foot's resolution, was "consolidation" and "toryism"—Mr. *Hayne's*, a glorious display of "constitutional doctrines," and of the "true whig school." Neither of the gentlemen named have changed their opinions—but what is their position with the public now?

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tion of their vessels and cargoes, during the years 1809, 1810, 1811 and 1812, and his Sicilian majesty desiring thereby to strengthen with the said government the bonds of that harmony not hitherto disturbed, the said government of the United States, and his aforesaid majesty the king of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies have, with one accord, resolved to come to an adjustment, to effectuate which they have respectively named, and furnished with the necessary powers, viz: The said government of the United States, John Nelson, esq. a citizen of said states, and their charge d'affaires near his majesty the king of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies; and his majesty, his excellency D. Antonio Maria Statella, prince of Cassaro, marquis of Spaccaforno, count Statella, &c. &c. &c. his said majesty's minister, secretary of state for foreign affairs, &c. &c. who, after the exchange of their respective full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed to the following articles:

Article I. His majesty the king of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, with a view to satisfy the aforesaid reclamation for the depredations, sequestrations, confiscations and destruction of the vessels and cargoes of the merchants of the United States, [and for every expense of every kind whatsoever, incident to, or growing out of the same] inflicted by Murat during the years 1809, 1810, 1811, 1812, obliges himself to pay the sum of two millions one hundred and fifteen thousand Neapolitan ducats to the government of the United States; seven thousand six hundred and seventy-nine ducats, part thereof to be applied to reimburse the said government for the expense incurred by it in the transportation of American seamen from the kingdom of Naples during the year 1810, and the residue to be distributed amongst the claimants by the said government of the United States, in such manner, and according to such rules as it may prescribe.

Article II. The sum of two millions one hundred and fifteen thousand Neapolitan ducats, agreed on in article the first, shall be paid in Naples, in nine equal instalments of two hundred and thirty-five thousand ducats, and with interest thereon at the rate of four per centum per annum, to be calculated from the date of the interchange of the ratification of this convention, until the whole sum shall be paid. The first instalment shall be payable twelve months after the exchange of the said ratification, and the remaining instalments, with the interest successively, one year after another. The said payments shall be made in Naples, into the hands of such persons as shall be duly authorised by the government of the United States to receive the same.

Article III. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged in this capital in the space of eight months from this date, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof, the parties above named have respectively subscribed these articles, and thereto affixed their seals. Done at Naples, on the fourteenth day of October, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two.

JOHN NELSON. [SEAL]
THE PRINCE OF CASSARO. [SEAL]

EMIGRATION TO CANADA.

The Canadian Literary Journal contains some curious statements respecting the character and extent of the recent emigration from Europe to the Canadas. Prior to the year 1830, the number of emigrants was comparatively small, and they were almost exclusively laboring men, wholly destitute of pecuniary resources, who came out for the purpose of procuring the means of subsistence. Within the last three years, the number of the emigrants has been three or four times as great as the average of several years preceding, and a large portion of them have been farmers of considerable property, professional men, and retired officers of the army and navy. The value of real estate in the provinces, says the Journal, has been every where materially increased, and that of wild lands in Upper Canada has been more than doubled. The number of emigrants in 1829 was 15,945; in 1830, 28,000; in 1831, 50,254; and in 1832, 51,746. Of this last number, 19,830 were males, 17,052 females, and 14,864 children under fourteen years of age. All of them were voluntary emigrants, excepting about 5,000, who received parochial aid. Thirty-five thousand went to Upper Canada. 10,000 remained in Lower [illegible] their own country, and 3,346 went to the United States. During the last four years, the increase of emigration from England has been five-fold, from Ireland three-fold, and from Scotland two-fold; and the emigration from England in 1832 was greater by 70 per cent. than that of the preceding year, while the emigration from Ireland in the same period was diminished by 15 per cent. Four years ago, the emigrants from England came principally from the northern counties; they now come chiefly from the southern. The professional men who came out during the last year, have established themselves in the towns and villages of Upper Canada; the officers have obtained, and in general settled upon, the lands to which they are entitled for their services; and the agricultural emigrants have purchased cultivated farms in different parts of that province. The laboring class have been settled on the wild lands belonging to the crown, a large portion of which are in the district of Newcastle. It was in this district, that the first experiment was made of settling bodies of indigent emigrants upon these lands; and though various difficulties have been encountered, the Journal declares that it has proved eminently successful; the population of this district having increased since the year 1817 from 4,000 to 30,000. The advantages derived from emigration are attributed chiefly to the exertions of lieutenant governor sir John Colborne, who has not only done much to promote it, but has distinguished himself by his efforts to secure the comfort and prosperity of the emigrants.

THE FRENCH IN ALGIERS.

The occupation of Algiers by the French is not unattended with trouble. The Arab tribes of the interior, unsubdued and as hostile as ever, are a constant source of uneasiness to the French occupants. A late Paris Moniteur says:

"Several hostile tribes had plundered our allies and neighbors, the Beni Urgins, of their cattle, and escaping with impunity, had been encouraged to enter by night into our establishments, and, being expert thieves, carried off some of our horses, mules and implements. General D'Uzer, the commander-in-chief at Bona, having learnt that the stolen property had been taken to the Oulet d'Attia, a tribe settled about five leagues off, resolved to chastise these depredators, and at the same time intimidate the Arabs by making a great display of force. Consequently, on the 21st, at midnight, he marched out of Bona an advanced guard of 520 cavalry and some light infantry, under the command of col. Perragaux, following himself, in half an hour, with 800 men, infantry and engineers, and a battery of artillery, moving in the deepest silence. At daybreak the tribe of Oulet d'Attia were completely surrounded; but, at the first musket shot, the tribe of Beni Acoub, one of our most hostile enemies, hastened with all the cavalry and infantry it could assemble. A brisk firing ensued, during which col. Perragaux hastened to send in the rear the flocks and cattle he had captured. This made the enemy attack us with increased fury, but they were completely routed by two brilliant charges of our cavalry, which left thirty-one Arabs dead upon the field, and made six prisoners. Upon this a retreat was made in the finest order; but after marching a short distance, colonel Perragaux halted his men, to allow them to refresh themselves, and afterwards returned to Bona without further interruption. General D'Uzer, after restoring to our enclosures eighty head of cattle that had been carried off, distributed fifty three oxen to the Karesas, fifty cows, as many calves, and 100 sheep to the Beni Urgin, and twenty oxen to another tribe, which though called Oulet d'Attia, is friendly to us. He then returned to the guilty tribe of Oulet d'Attia the remainder of the cattle brought off, who, on their side gave up the horses and objects they had taken from us. The severe lesson these received has had a great effect in the country, so that several inhabitants of Bona, who, on their way from Constantine were plundered to a large amount by the numerous tribe of El-Cabal, have had all the stolen articles restored to them."

FRENCH AND ENGLISH AGRICULTURE COMPARED.

The following comparative statement, showing the amount of animate and inanimate power applied to agriculture and commerce in France and Great Britain, is given by Mr. Charles Dupin. He takes the population of France at 31,800,000, and England and Scotland at 15,000,000.

Applied to agriculture in France.

			Effective laborers.
Human race	21,056,667	equal to	8,406,038
Horses	1,600,000	"	11,200,000
Oxen and cows	6,973,000	"	17,432,000
Asses	240,000	"	240,000
Total			37,278,000

Applied to agriculture in England and Scotland.

			Effective laborers.
Human race	5,000,000	equal to	2,132,446
Horses	2,250,000	"	8,750,000
Oxen, cows, &c.	5,500,000	"	13,750,000
			24,632,446
Approximating estimate for Ireland			7,455,701
Total for the United Kingdom			32,088,147

Applied to the arts, manufacture and commerce.

	In France.	In G. Britain.
Animal force equal to	6,303,019	7,275,497
Mills and hydraulic engines	1,500,000	1,200,000
Wind mills	253,333	240,000
Wind and steam navigation	3,000,000	12,000,000
Steam engines	480,000	6,400,000
Total force	11,536,352	27,115,497
Approximating estimate for Ireland		1,002,667
Total force for Great Britain		28,118,164

By the above estimate, it appears that France, with a population of 32,000,000, employs in agriculture, the arts and commerce, a conjoined animate and inanimate power equal to 48,814,390 able men; and that Great Britain, with its population, (say 28,000,000), employs a power equal to 60,206,311. That the inanimate power applied in England and Scotland to agriculture is equal to twelve times the human force, while in France it does not exceed five times; that the inanimate power applied to manufacture and commerce in Great Britain, is four times greater than in France; and that the whole animate and inanimate power engaged in manufacture and commerce in Great Britain is nearly treble the amount of that so occupied in France.

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PRODUCT AND CONSUMPTION OF COFFEE.

The following *calculations* concerning the product and consumption of coffee, will interest many of our readers, who are not concerned in a trade in the article. We think, however, that the estimated amount of the consumption, as well as of the production is a great deal too high.

From the Boston Courier.

Estimated consumption of Europe. The population of Europe is about 210,000,000. If one-tenth of this number be consumers of coffee, and each consume 15 lbs. annually, which is little more than ½ lb. per week, the consumption will exceed 300,000,000 lbs. In most parts of Europe, the higher and middling classes, comprehending the nobility, high and middling clergy, legal and medical professions, merchants, manufacturing proprietors, landed gentry, rich mechanics, and naval and military officers, are generally consumers of coffee, and constitute more than one-tenth of the population. A large portion of all these being rich, and addicted to luxurious habits, consume as much coffee in proportion to numbers, as the wealthy or middling population of our cities; and the usual consumption of the latter is ½ lb. per week, or 25 per year for each individual. Coffee is, perhaps, more generally consumed in Germany, the Netherlands, Prussia and Austria, than in other European countries. The whole population of these is about—

	54,000,000	1-4 consumers		13,750,000
France	31,000,000	1 5	"	8,000,000
Turkey	9,000,000			
Spain, Portugal & Italy	30,000,000	1 20	"	1,500,000
Denmark	1,800,000			
Sweden	3,700,000	1-10	"	750,000
Switzerland	2,000,000			
G. Britain and Ireland	21,000,000	1-7	"	1,500,000
Russia	57,500,000	1-40	"	1,500,000
	210,000,000			27,000,000

But to reduce this number of consumers to 1-10 of the whole population, 23 per centum should be deducted, and say for round numbers	6,000,000
Which leaves for consumers	21,000,000
If each of these consume 16⅔ pounds annually, which is 1-3 less than the quantity allowed above to the greatest consumers of our cities, the annual consumption of Europe will be	21,000,000 lbs.
	16⅔
	350,000,000 lbs.
If one-seventh be deducted from this	50,000,000 do.
The remainder, or *least* annual consumption will be	300,000,000 do.

RECAPITULATION.

1. The wealthy and middling classes of Europe exceed *one-tenth* of the *whole* population, are generally consumers of coffee, and consume *as much* in proportion to numbers, as the wealthy and middling population of our cities.

2. Only *one tenth* of the whole are assumed as actual consumers, and are allowed, for each individual, only two-thirds of the quantity consumed in our cities.

3. *One-seventh* of the quantity thus allowed to this amount of population at this *reduced* rate of consumption, is deducted for *over estimate;* and the remainder, or the *least* quantity that can be obtained from the *most reduced* rates of population and consumption, is 3,000,000 millions of pounds.

Whether coffee will rise or fall in price hereafter, must depend entirely upon the wants of the world and its means of supplying them. Upon either of these points certainty is not attainable, and approximation is all that can be rationally expected. The question therefore involves merely a calculation of probabilities, from data, of which, though many be facts, others are merely conjectures. The supply consists of production and stock. The production of some countries is ascertained; that of others nearly so; that of others merely conjectural, though known not to exceed certain quantities. The stock in first hands is generally capable of being ascertained: that in second that in the hands of retailers, merely conjectural. The time necessary to produce coffee, or to renew deficient stocks from the produce of new plantations, is known exactly. The consumption of the world cannot be ascertained, but can be inferred from the amount of importations, sales and stock in first hands, in a period of several successive years. The following estimate of production is higher than any that has been published within the last four or five years.

Java now produces for exportation	40	mill. lbs.
The rest of India and Arabia	30	"
Brazil	80	"
Cuba	50	"
Porto Rico	15	"
St. Domingo	40	"
British West Indies	20	"
French do.	15	"
Dutch do.	10	"
Spanish Main	10	"
Total production of 1833	300	mill. lbs.

The stock in first hands, Jan. 1, 1833, in Europe, importing Asia, and the U. States, according to the most authentic accounts yet published, did not exceed	120 mill. lbs.			
The stock in all second and third hands did not probably exceed 5-6 of this amount, or	100	"	220	"
Therefore the actual supplies for 1833 do not exceed			520	"
The annual consumption of Europe and importing Asia is not, probably, less than	300 mill. lbs.			
And that of the U. States not less than	80	"	380	"
Leaving the stock, on the 1st of January, 1834, in first hands 76 4-11 mills. in all second hands 63 7-11 mills. and in all hands			140	"
If production does not increase, the crops of 1834 will be			300	"
And the supplies for 1834			440	"
If present prices continue, the annual increase of consumption in the U. States will not be less than	10 mill. lbs.			
And as the annual increase of sales since 1829, as ascertained from the circulars of importers in Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Hamburgh, Bremen and Trieste, exceeds 6 mill. lbs. the increase of all Europe and the Levant may be estimated at not less than	10	"		
And the whole consumption of 1834			400	mill. lbs.
Which will leave the stock in all hands, on the 1st of January, 1835			40	"
If production still be stationary, the crops of 1835 will be			300	"
And the supplies for 1835			340	"
Prices being still stationary, and consumption increasing as before, the consumption of 1835 will be			420	"
And the deficiency for 1835 will be			80	"

But the reader will pronounce this calculation inadmissible, for at these rates, two years will not elapse before the world will not contain a pound of coffee except that growing on the trees, and will require 80,000,000 lbs. more than the supply. But this result depends upon a continuance of these rates—that is, of production and consumption. Will these rates be altered? for nothing else can alter the result. Production is known to be increasing in no countries excepting Brazil, Cuba and British India; and the increase of the first does not amount to 10,000,000 lbs. annually, nor of the second to 5,000,000, nor of the whole to 20,000,000. In St. Domingo, Porto Rico, the British West Indies, Dutch do. the Spanish Main and Java, it is known to have decreased since 1829, and the present rate of decrease is not less than 20,000,000 annually. In no countries except Brazil, has planting been extended since 1829, and in the Spanish Main, Porto Rico, British West Indies, Dutch do. and Java, old estates have been neglected. Should new planting begin in all countries in 1833, the produce of it would not reach the market for sale till 1837, nor in great quantities till 1838. Production will not therefore be augmented during 1834 and 1835, and consequently that rate will not be disturbed.

Will *the assumed rate* of production continue? This will depend upon a continuance or fall of present prices. Nothing then but an advance of present prices will check the present rates of consumption, and preserve the balance between demand and supply, till production can be augmented from new plantations. The present prices in Europe, exclusive of duties, are 100 per cent. higher than those of 1830; yet consumption since then, calculated from sales, has increased 10,000,000 lbs. annually. The price of 1819, in Europe and the United States, were from 100 to 125 per cent. above the present; and coffee then cost to the consumer 25 cents [illegible] British plantation, and 65 cents for St. Domingo. The reader is left to his own conclusions.

From the Baltimore American.

Coffee.—This article can no longer be classed among the luxuries of the country; it enters so largely into the daily consumption of almost every family, rich and poor, that its appropriate place is now a prominent one among the necessaries of life in the United States. Within a few years, especially, the consumption of coffee has increased rapidly, and it has at length attained a point which renders it a matter of some interest, both to the importer and dealer, to ascertain the aggregate quantity required annually for the wants of the country. A statement in a late number of the Boston Courier, prepared for the purpose of ascertaining this fact, sets down the annual consumption of the United states at 91 millions of pounds. A friend who has examined the Courier's statement, pronounces the estimated consumption to be greatly exaggerated, and in order to show as nearly as practicable the true quantity, and thus to counteract any overwrought or unreasonable expectations which the Boston estimate may lead to, has furnished us with the following statement of the actual imports and exports of coffee,

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and the estimated consumption, for the last twelve years up to the first of October inst. The items of import and export for each year are correctly copied from the official returns to the treasury department.

Years.	*Import.*	*Export.*	*Consumption.*
1821	*lbs.* 21,273,659	*lbs.* 9,387,596	*lbs.* 11,886,063
1822	25,782,390	7,267,119	18,515,271
1823	37,337,732	20,900,687	16,437,045
1824	31,224,296	19,427,227	11,797,069
1825	45,191,630	24,512,568	20,578,062
1826	37,319,497	11,584,713	25,734,784
1827	50,051,986	21,697,789	28,354,197
1828	55,194,697	16,037,964	39,156,733
1829	51,130,538	18,083,843	33,049,695
1830	51,488,248	13,124,561	38,363,687
1831	81,757,386	6,056,629	75,700,757
1832	91,722,329	55,251,158	36,471,171

From which the following facts are gathered:

The nett importation or consumption for the first six years, was	*lbs.* 104,948,294
Do. do. for the last six years	*lbs.* 251,096,240
Increase 25 millions per annum	*lbs.* 150,147,946
Aggregate nett importation for 1827, 8 & 9	100,560,625
Do. do. 1830, 31 & 32	150,535,615
Increase—nearly 17 millions each year	49,974,990
The aggregate nett importation for 1829 & 30	71,413,382
Do. do. 1831 & 32	112,171,928
Increase 20 millions for each year	40,758,546

Aggregate consumptions for four last years about 180 millions, average 45 millions

Do. do. two last years about 110 million, average 55 millions.

And the following division of the consumption of each year, corresponds with either view, viz:

1829,	consumption	30 millions,		180 millions.
1830,	do.	40 do.		
1831,	do.	50	110	
1832,	do.	60		

At the same rate of increase, the consumption of the present year will be 70 million pounds.

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.

May not a part of the seemingly increased consumption, just above stated, be in an increased stock on hand? We do not think that the annual consumption in the United States much exceeds 50 millions of pounds. Coffee recently paid a duty of 5 cents per lb. but is now *free;* yet the price of the article has not fallen with the fall or abolition of the duty, and hence the consumption has not been increased on that account.

A NEWLY INVENTED PUMP, OF GREAT POWER.

From the American Daily Advertiser.

Mr. Poulson—It is but little known to us, that we have a great curiosity in this way at our Philadelphia navy yard, the invention of the ingenious commodore Barron.* It is placed into the river, on the wharf-platform, in the rear of the Pennsylvania man-of-war, so as to be ready at any time to demonstrate its power and perfection of operation. It is not bored in the usual manner into a log, but is formed of plank, forming a four sided box. Whilst seeing it giving up its barrel of water at every stroke of the quick and easy lever, I could not forbear to think what numerous sea vessels, of the merchant service, might be saved from foundering and loss, if it were once adopted in our commerce! In the naval service it would of course prove of saving value in all cases of destructive leaks from balls in the hull. Our chamber of commerce, and our marine insurance offices, have much interest in this matter, and ought, we should think, to endeavor to get its general use into our merchant service. It might be the saving of millions, in time, in sea risks, and, above all, the preservation of numerous lives of our mariners! When we read lately of the "one hundred horse power" applied to the draining of the dry dock at Boston, for the late presidential visit to the "Old Ironsides" there, we could not forbear to think that four such pumps as commodore Barron's, set by crank to a one horse power each, would have effected all [illegible] pumps, the contractors and engineers on our numerous railways, canals and public works, would facilitate their labors in draining required places—and mines subjected to water inundations, like our silver mines in North Carolina, and of the companies working in Mexico, would be saved the heavy sums they now disburse to keep them dry. Some that have been abandoned in South America, by their accumulation of water, might be again worked to profit. The same idea will enable us to contemplate the means of bringing morasses inland, and many water lands along our rivers, into a practicable means of draining them, and so making them capable of grass production. On the whole, as we have the demonstration of such a pump, so much needed, in so many of our operations, we hope hereafter to hear of its adoption generally throughout our country. With the inventor it is probably but a secondary concern, followed out to its accomplishment, as an amusement to an inventive mind; but with such powers as it possesses to benefit the public, it becomes matter of regret to contemplate it as resting in its present restricted use. I have only to add, that I hope the distinguished gentleman concerned will suffer this commendation from an unknown hand. UTILITY.

*The same gentleman has a model of a ship, to be formed wholly of logs, for war service and steam power, of such massive thickness, (of solid bulk), as to encounter singly any force of a hostile fleet, and to burn them with red hot balls. The idea is, if I understand it, with such protection in our waters, to make our usual expenses in fortifications unnecessary.

DR. SMITH'S MAGNETIC NEEDLE.

From the National Intelligencer.

Respecting this article, for marine and surveyor's compasses, of which, a manufactory has been established in this city, the evidence which he has exhibited satisfies us that it is a valuable invention. Its advantages are so well described in the following letter, selected from several we have seen on the subject, that every one interested will comprehend them without further explanation:

Washington, 20th May, 1833.

SIR: I have the honor to report, agreeably to your instructions relative to the examination of the improved needles of Dr. Smith, that I have had them for some time past under examination, and have carefully tested their qualities by a variety of experiments, and believe them to be very superior to the common needles now in use.

In the manufacture of the common needles, there has always been great neglect both in providing a suitable material, and adopting a regular form, it being left for the most part to the convenience and fancy of the workmen, and the size and shape of the material, which is, no doubt, one of the many causes of the great discrepancies observed in their action and results.

This is very far from being the case with the needles manufactured by Dr. Smith; he has adopted a form which he has found by long experience to be the most fit, and most tenaciously adheres to it: his material is of the first quality, and carefully worked, great attention being paid to magnetizing it. He also supplies his needles with what he calls *feeders*, small pieces of soft iron that slide on it, placed near its ends, thereby concentrating all the small magnets, (which exists more or less), near its points, giving more steadiness, and a greater directive power to his needles, and avoiding, in a great degree, the local attraction to which his needles may be subjected.

I ascertained this last to my entire satisfaction, by subjecting the same needle with and without feeders, to an attractive force, in the following manner, viz: One of his needles was suspended on a fine point, placed in the centre of a number of concentric circles, drawn around it half an inch apart on a table; when the needle was approached armed with its feeders, I found that I could approach much nearer to it with an attractive force without disturbing it, than when it was unarmed, or without the feeders; the difference I found was generally about two of the circles, or an inch, when the body approached was a strong magnet, and a much greater force to cause deviation than they would ever be subject to on ship-board; proving conclusively that they were a protection, or security against local attraction, and this security appeared to be in proportion as the feeders were placed near to, or farther from the centre of the needles; the feeders appeared in some cases too small, the proportion between the feeder and needle not being in my opinion as yet well ascertained. The needles are remarkably active, and possess much more directive power than those of the common kind now in use, (with which they were compared), when drawn aside settling again very quickly on the magnetic meridian.

Dr. Smith's manner of restoring deranged needles by concussion with his "electric rod," is simple, and effective by one who is experienced; he seldom, if ever failed himself; but I am not able to impute to myself so much adroitness in applying the proper degree of force required; I am disposed to think, by a little practice, it may be easily acquired; one thing is most certain, it is the manner of restoring a deranged needle, so simple, and in the possession of all, that when once known, few will be willing to leave untried.

I beg leave to add, that I feel indebted to Dr. Smith for the obliging manner in which he has shewn me the whole process of manufacturing his needle, and satisfying my numerous inquiries, and feel confidence in recommending him to your notice, be[illegible] needles, that they are a valuable improvement, and [illegible] serving your patronage. With great respect, &c.

CHARLES WILKES, jr.

Lieut. U. S. navy, attached to depot ins.

To com. *John Rodgers, &c. &c.*

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Message from the president of the United States, transmitting a report of the operations of the mint during the year 1832.

JANUARY 21, 1833—READ AND LAID ON THE TABLE.

Washington, 19th Jan. 1833.

I transmit to congress a report from the director of the mint, exhibiting the operations of that institution during the year 1832.

ANDREW JACKSON.

To the hon. the speaker of the house of representatives of the U. S.

Mint of the U. States, Philadelphia, Jan. 15, 1833.

SIR: I have now the honor to submit a report on the general transactions of the mint during the last year, ending 31st December.

The coinage effected within that period amounts to $3,401,055, comprising $798,435 in gold coins, $2,579,000 in silver, and

$23,620 in copper, and consisting of 9,128,387 pieces of coin, viz:

Half eagles	157,487	pieces	making	$787,435
Quarter eagles	4,400	do.	do.	11,000
Half dollars	4,797,000	do.	do.	2,398,500
Quarter dollars	320,000	do.	do.	80,000
Dimes	522,500	do.	do.	52,250
Half dimes	965,000	do.	do.	48,250
Cents	2,362,000	do.	do.	23,620
	9,128,387			$3,401,055

Of the amount of gold coined within the last year, about $60,000 were derived from Mexico, South America, and the West Indies; $28,900 from Africa; $678,000 from the gold region of the United States, and about $12,000 from sources not ascertained.

Of the amount of gold of the United States, above mentioned, about $34,000 may be stated to have been received from Virginia; $458,000 from North Carolina; $45,000 from South Carolina; $140,000 from Georgia; and about $1,000 from Tennessee.

The following statement exhibits the quantity of gold received from those districts of the United States which have thus far produced it in quantities sufficient to attract notice, commencing with the year 1824. Up to that period it had been received at the mint only from North Carolina, from which quarter gold was first transmitted for coinage in the year 1804. During the interval, however, from 1804 to 1823, inclusive, the amount had not exceeded 2,500 yearly.

	Virginia.	N. Carolina.	S. Carolina.	Georgia.	Tennessee.	Alabama.	Total.
1824	—	5,000	—	—	—	—	5,000
1825	—	17,000	—	—	—	—	17,000
1826	—	20,000	—	—	—	—	20,000
1827	—	21,000	—	—	—	—	21,000
1828	—	46,000	—	—	—	—	46,000
1829	2,500	134,000	3,500	—	—	—	140,000
1830	24,000	204,000	26,000	212,000	—	—	466,000
1831	26,000	294,000	22,000	176,000	1,000	1,000	520,000
1832	34,000	458,000	45,000	140,000	1,000	—	678,000
	86,500	1,190,000	96,500	523,000	2,000	1,000	1,913,000

It is rendered highly probable, by estimates entitled to great respect, that the quantity of gold of the U. States, delivered at the mint within the last year does not much exceed the one-half of the production from the mines—nearly an equal amount being supposed to have been exported uncoined, or employed in the arts. If this conjecture be nearly correct, the production of gold from the United States, during the year has not been less than a million and a quarter of dollars. This may be regarded as equal to one-sixth part of all the gold produced, within the same period, from the mines of Europe and America, estimated according to the results of recent years, as given by the best authorities.

The prevalence of a fearful epidemic in this and other cities of the United States, was sensibly felt in a diminution of the usual demands on the mint, and its productiveness within the third quarter of the year. In every department of the institution labor was, during the prevalence of the danger, more lightly exacted; and it is stated, with much pleasure, that no individual employed in the establishment, became a subject of the disease.

Operations, I have now the satisfaction to say, have been commenced in the new mint for the proof of the machinery; and all the departments of the institution will be transferred in a few days to that edifice.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, your obedient servant, SAMUEL MOORE.

The president of the United States.

From the Calumet.

It will be seen by the report that *seven* essays (of the thirty-seven which have been presented for the premium), were selected by a committee appointed by the board and transmitted to the umpires. The following is the decision which was received the 7th of May last:

The subscribers, according to the request of the committee of the American peace society, have carefully read the several essays, which have been transmitted to them by the committee, for the purpose of awarding the prizes authorised by the society for the two essays.

Upon full consideration, they are of opinion that five of the essays possess very high merit; and that their merit is so nearly equal, and yet of so distinct a character, that injustice would be done by awarding the highest prize to any one, to the exclusion of the others. With a view, therefore, to a just distribution of the prizes, and, as the best means of accomplishing the important objects of the society, they respectfully recommend, in lieu of the prizes, as proposed by the society, that the whole sum of six hundred dollars should be equally divided among the authors of these five essays; and that each of them should be published for general distribution.

In testimony whereof, we have hereunto set our hands, this 29th day of April, 1833.

JOSEPH STORY,
WM. WIRT,
JOHN McLEAN.

As this decision does not meet the views of the society or the donors of the prize, it being too much to print and publish the five essays, and must also disappoint the expectations of the writers, it is judged inexpedient to accept it as the final decision. While the society and the donors of the premium are grateful for the services of the umpires, they are happy to know by communications from two of them, that it will meet their approbation to consider the decision as not made, as it was their united opinion that no other judgment could justly be passed on the essays submitted to their inspection, no one of them having the desirable superiority.

It being determined also to renew the offer of the premium with an increase of the prize, it is judged inexpedient to open the letters of the five selected essays, or to publish the mottos.

To those who have favored the society by writing for the cause, respectful acknowledgments are cordially made, and their renewed efforts earnestly solicited. They are requested to look at the conditions of the premium, with particular reference to the wishes of the donors. L. D. DEWEY.

Recording sec. A. P. society.

June, 1833.

$1,000 PREMIUM.

By the liberality of two friends of the cause of peace, the board of the American peace society are enabled to offer the premium of 1,000 dollars for the best essay on a congress, or court of nations, for the amicable settlement of national differences and the abolition of war. Should two essays be of equal, or nearly equal merit, the premium will be divided in correspondent proportions between them, if both are esteemed worthy of the prize.

The conditions are, that the essay contain from 60 to 150 octavo pages, or about these limits; all the manuscripts to be at the disposal of the society, both the successful and rejected essays. The essays to be transmitted free of expense to the office of the peace society, 129, Nassau street, New York, directed to L. D. Dewey, before June 20th, 1834.

The wish of the society, and of the donors of the premium is, that the essay may, under God, effect, as to the subject of war, a revolution in the public mind—may, if possible, produce in the sentiments men have on this subject, a change radical and entire—may effectually demonstrate that war is needless; that, in fact, it is as practicable as rational, for nations to decide their differences by reason; that resort to the sword is irrationally brutal, and cruel, and wicked, and absurd. As rulers, acting accordantly with public opinion, do now require those whom they rule to settle their differences peaceably; so, the change that is desired being wrought, the people by the resistless power of their united calls—the energetic influence of the popular voice rightly expressed, shall cause that statesmen become true ministers—the nation's servants shall adjust all difficulties of the nation, in the same *rightful* and LEGAL *way*. The essay which shall carry conviction to people and governments, that national differences can be settled without recourse to arms—ought to be, if men are rational beings—and must be, ere the full reign of the Saviour on earth can commence, is the one sought for. It needs then to show how unadapted to adjust national differences is the brutal force of war, that teeming source of human ills—to show, in reference to this adjustment, the perfect fitness of a court of nations, its advantages, its feasibility.

Should not the gentlemen who examined the essays before, find it in their power to act as umpires again, other distinguished gentlemen will be selected. *Cor. sec. A. P. S.*

RUSH'S MEMORANDA.

Mr. *Richard Rush*, formerly our minister at London, and more recently secretary of the treasury of the United Sates, has just published a volume entitled "*Memoranda of a residence at the court of London*," from which it is probable that we shall make some liberal extracts[illegible] introduce the following notice of an important subject, as we find it neatly prepared in the "Baltimore American."

Speaking of Mr. R's narratives of diplomatic conversations, &c. the "American" observes—

The *question of impressment* was one, the settlement of which, by treaty or convention, was a subject to which the attention of Mr. Rush was especially directed. As it is one of great importance, and one of the points still in controversy, it may be acceptable to our readers to know the precise terms which Mr. Rush was empowered to offer, and did offer to the British government, and the grounds upon which they were refused. We doubt whether any such offers will ever be made again.

Mr. Rush's first and least favorable proposition for the British side of the question was, that both nations should reciprocally enter into stipulations imposing restraints upon the naturalization of the seamen of the other, and excluding from their service all seamen not naturalized. After reciting the provisions of the act of congress of 1813, Mr. Rush promised that the U. States would further provide "that every British subject desiring to become a citizen, should be bound to appear in person before the proper tribunal, once a year for the term of five years, until his right should be completed," or adopt some other more prac-

tical and satisfactory mode of ascertaining that his residence had been *bona fide* and uninterrupted. The United States were further to agree that no British seaman who might be in their territory at the time of the stipulation, should be admitted into public or private ships till after the expiration of the regular term of naturalization. In return, a distinct provision was asked from Great Britain, not to impress out of American vessels. This offer was made by Mr. Rush, April 18th, 1818. The answer of lord Castlereagh, dated June 11th, was short. He said that "on full consideration of the proposal, the cabinet had not found it practicable to forego, under any arrangement, the execution of which was to depend upon the legislative ordinances of another country, the right of Great Britain to look for her subjects on the high seas, into whatever service they might wander." In reply to an inquiry from Mr. Rush, whether any proposals would be submitted on the part of Great Britain, lord Castlereagh answered that he was prepared with none that did not assume as a basis the right of entering our vessels; but he offered to enter into stipulations for a tender exercise of this right, restricting the boarding officers to those of rank not below lieutenants, giving "*responsible receipts*" for the men taken out, &c.—which were declined upon the general ground that the United States would not admit the right of entry at all for any such purpose.

On the 20th June, 1818, Mr. Rush thereupon made another and final offer—and truly it seems to us that concession could not possibly go further. He proposed that both nations should rigidly exclude from all vessels, public or private, all native born subjects or citizens of the other. The same precautions, as in the former offer, to be taken to prevent imposition; seamen already naturalized to be excluded; and each party to have power to grant licenses to its own seamen to enter the service of the other. By such an agreement all British subjects in the United States, not naturalized at that date, or who should arrive subsequently, were to be peremptorily excluded from the ships of the United States, public or private. In return, the stipulation not to enter American ships was required of Great Britain. This proposition was also rejected, and afterwards reconsidered by the British, and two conditions annexed; one of which was refused by the American negotiators and withdrawn by lord Castlereagh. The other was accepted. It was a stipulation that the treaty should be revocable at short notice by either party.

The negotiation being opened, the British brought forward a counter project. This project accepted all the terms of the American project, as to the exclusions and exceptions of seamen. Other requisitions were made and debated, agreed to or withdrawn, but they are not material, as the whole negotiation went off on two points. The British proposal required that each nation should furnish the other with a list of the *names* of persons to be excepted out of the exclusion from sea service—specifying the place of birth and the date of naturalization of each, and that none but those whose names were on the list should fall within the exception. The Americans proposed as a substitute, that no person should be entitled to the exemption "unless he produced proof of his having been duly naturalized prior to the exchange of ratifications of the treaty"—which was rejected on the other side. The other point upon which the question went off was, the demand of the British commissioners that the treaty should take effect from its "signature"—which the Americans could not constitutionally consent to, and proposed, from the "exchange of ratifications"—which was also refused. This seems to us so *trifling* a point to be insisted on, that the inference is natural that the British ministry had no serious intention of making a treaty on the subject at all. On these two points the negotiation, in the language of Mr. Rush, "fell to the ground."

DIPLOMATIC HISTORY.

Most of our readers, we suppose, are apprised that there is in the press, at the office of the publishers of this paper, a compilation of public documents communicated to or emanating from congress, which, under the title of "*American State Papers*," embraces the whole documentory history of the United States, from the [illegible]. Few, however, would, without particular examination, realize the value and interest of this compilation, which is under the direction of the secretary of the senate and the clerk of the house of representatives, and is sanctioned by the authority of congress. The papers are divided into classes, the first class being that of foreign relations. Of the papers belonging to this class, many have never before been seen by the public eye, having been communicated originally in *confidence*, the reasons for which have now ceased. Some of these documents are curious enough. We have just lit upon the subjoined, which recalls to the mind old times and circumstances which are rapidly fading from memory. It is as amusing a sample of diplomacy as one would desire to see on a summer's day. [At the date of this letter, it will be bore in mind, Don Onis was here as minister from the cortes of Spain, but not recognized, king Joseph being at the head of the goverment of that country.] We dare say our readers will be instructed as well as amused by it, and so we here insert it. *National Intelligencer.*

CONFIDENTIAL.

To the senate and house of representatives of the United States:

I communicate to congress, in confidence, the translation of a letter from Louis de Onis, to the captain general of the province of the Caraccas.

The tendency of misrepresentatious and suggestio[illegible] which, it may be inferred from this specimen, enter into more [illegible]tant correspondences of the writer, to promote in foreign cou[illegible]cils, at a critical period, views adverse to the peace and to the best interests of our country, render the contents of the letter of sufficient moment to be made known to the legislature.

JAMES MADISON.

January 10th, 1811.

Translation of a letter from Luis de Onis to the captain general of the province of the Caraccas, dated

Philadelphia, 2d *Feb.* 1810.

The administration of this government having put the stamp upon the servile meanness and adulation in which they stand in relation to their oracle Bonaparte, the day before yesterday, by their direction, Mr. Eppes, the son in-law of the former president, Jefferson, made a proposition, that a minister should be immediately sent to Joseph Bonaparte, at Madrid: this was supported in the committee in which the house then was by Mr. Cutts, who is the brother in-law of president Madison. There were various debates: there were howlings in the tribunals: there were sarcasms against the supreme central junta, and many trifling observations from one party and the other, among which mention was made of the arrival of a minister from the supreme junta, and of this government's having wisely refused to receive him; and at length a vote was taken, from which it resulted that, for the present, no minister was to be sent to Joseph.

In the annexed paper you will see all the debates, which, for want of time, I have not been able to have traoslated: if your excellency should not be informed, by my former despatches, of the mode of thinking of the present administration, this alone will show the little hope there is of obtaining any thing favorable from it, *but by energy, by force, and by chastisement.*

The facility, I again repeat it, and I will repeat it a thousand times, with which American vessels are admitted into our colonies, preferring them to our own, makes these people believe, that our weakness does not permit us even to talk to them on equal terms, much less to take measures which may injure them. From hence springs the great opinion (la graode opinion) they have, that the intruder, Joseph, will rule in Spain and her colonies; and hence the incitement to their scandalous conduct in promoting, by every means in their power, the machinations of Joseph, to make himself master of our colonies; as if upon that depended their happiuess.

The determination of making war on England, and of treating Spain with contempt, supposing that her nullity did not entitle her to any thing else, was taken by the present administration some time since, though it was not in them the determination of reason. To accomplish it, they thought of forming an alliance, offensive and defensive, between France, Russia, Denmark, Sweden and the United States; and some even suppose that it is formed. With this object, they have sent Mr. Adams to the court of Petersburg, in quality of minister plenipotentiary, directing him to examioe on his way (haciendole recorrer al paso) the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen; but, notwithstanding this, if England should display her energy, in however small a degree, and if, on our part, some vessels should be sent to their coasts, and some troops should draw near to Louisiana, there is reason to believe that we should see these provinces separated and divided into two or three republics, and consequently they would remain in a state of perfect nullity. We should soon have from the republic of the north, which would be our friend, all the supplies which are now drawn from the others, who would perish, from poverty and quarrels among themselves.

This country is now without a cent, with a deficit of four millions of dollars in her revenue; with not more of an effective army than 6,000 despicable men—of whom 2,500 that they had at New Orleans, are reduced by death to 600; and, although they have passed a law for 100,000, much time and money will be necessary to organize them. Its navy is, for the most part, disarmed, although they propose to arm it, and the whole of its ple is such, that the secretary of the treasury, Gallatin, speaking with colonel Joseph de Gonzales, late governor of Puno, who, from his having come from the Havana, Mexico and other provinces, he believed (not knowing his integrity) to be one of the many emissaries of Napoleon (the cast which abounds most here) offered to him the constitution of Paine, and other papers relative to the liberty which here they dispute about, persuading him to send them to Mexico, and our other colonies, and that he should endeavor to induce them to unite themselves to this republic: that here they were ready, if this succeeded, to move near to them, or even to place in their country the seat of government. These, sir, are the ideas with which this administration is animated. Notwithstanding, at the time they observed this conduct, they sent general Sumter, in the character of minister plenipotentiary, to Rio Janeiro.

God preserve you many years. LUIS DE ONIS.

To the captain general of the province of Caraccas.

HARBORS ON LAKE ERIE.

From the Cleveland Advertiser.

A statement in the report of the engineer department accompanying the last annual report of the secretary of war, shews

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the amount expended on the various works to October 1, 1832. The moneys undrawn from the treasury, and those in the hands of agents at that time, which are still applicable to their completion are also given, as follows:

	Cost to Oct. 1, 1833.	*Undrawn from treasury.*	*In the hands of agents Oct. 1, 1832.*
Buffalo	$81,584		6,309
Black Rock	36,197	2,600	1,300
Dunkirk	29,257	5,200	3,000
Erie	46,240	1,500	1,072
Cunningham's creek or Madison	7,616		356
Conneaut	22,237	5,300	268
Ashtabula	28,854	900	2,403
Grand river	24,825	3,065	1,167
Cleveland	28,802	4,325	1,108
Black river	28,352	4,600	382
Huron river	21,213	730	265
La Plaisance Bay	6,272	8,123	
	$361,349		
LIGHT HOUSES, &c.			
	Appropriation.		
Light house at Buffalo	5,736	2,500	1,525
" Cleveland	1,740		341
Bacon light at G. River	364		151

Several of the above harbors will not require any more expenditures to complete them beyond what has been appropriated. The engineer estimates for further appropriations to complete those of Buffalo, Erie, Cunningham creek, Ashtabula and Black river. The appropriate committee in congress report for $32,000 to carry on the works at Buffalo. These harbors when finished will have cost probably half a million of dollars. The engineer's report in reference to the above work, says, "the plans adopted for deepening channels at the mouths of rivers which were choked up with sand, have afforded, in their execution, a result far exceeding the expectation of all who were acquainted with their situation prior to the commencement of their improvement." Works of a similar character, it may be observed, have been known in other parts of the world for many ages; but here they have had all the difficulties of an experiment. The artificial harbors of Ramsgate and Yarmouth in England are said to be of a like description with those of Lake Erie. The one at Ramsgate was not completed for forty years from its commencement, and cost $2,600,000—the piers built of stone. The one at Yarmouth has been rebuilt seven or eight times, and the annual cost of keeping it in repair is $9,000.

Herod, the great, built an artificial harbor at Cæsaria to secure vessels from the strong south west winds of the Mediterranean sea. He first formed a strong mole or break water, somewhat like the one now building in the Delaware below Philadelphia, by sinking stones of fifty feet long, eighteen feet wide and nine feet deep, and which therefore must have weighed about 600 tons each. On this arose a pier 200 feet wide defended by a wall and towers.

We notice in the engineer's report the improvements making in the navigation of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers in removing snags, sawers, &c. In the Ohio the deepening of the channel by means of "wing dams" promises to be a great benefit to the navigation of that river. The superintendent says, "that work which was formerly viewed as an experiment is now reduced to a practical certainty. The bars throughout the whole extent of the Ohio river can be removed in such a manner as to produce a safe and uniform navigation at its lowest stage of water with steam boats drawing four feet of water. The five bars that have been operated on were by far the most difficult and shoalest in the Ohio from the mouth of the Scioto to the Mississippi river, and had but two feet of water at the lowest stage of the river." It is auspicious that these improvements in the lower Ohio are making in conjunction with the completion of the Ohio canal, thus facilitating transportation and travel, which will be indefinitely augmenting; and at the same time perfecting THE LONGEST LINE OF INLAND NAVIGATION OF WHICH THE WORLD IS [illegible]

THE FLORIDA KEYS.

A writer in the Charleston Mercury is presenting the public with some interesting sketches of Florida. We extract the following notices of the cotton, torchwood, manchenele and mangrove trees.

The cotton tree is indigenous, not only to Florida keys, but also to the main as far north as the latitude of Charleston harbor. It resembles in color, (being yellow), the East India nankeens; the texture is woolly, and the plant perennial. It grows 10, 12 and 15 feet high. I am not aware that any experiments have been made in the cultivation of this cotton. May it not be the same plant, seed of which has been sent to the states under the name of *Peruvian cotton?*

The torchwood tree, as its name imparts, is used for torches, it burns bright like lightwood; and in combustion emits a pleasant odour resembling frankincense. From its pleasant smell, it is much used for smoking out mosquetoes.

The manchenele, when cut, emits a milky fluid, which, if applied to the human body, is peculiarly irritating, and by some held to be poisonous. I recollect an anecdote which proves that the irritating properties may be communicated to the human body without actual contact, and that it may be driven off by decomposition resulting from heat. A number of men were engaged clearing a road, they had cut down and set fire to several manchenele trees. Three or four men of the party incautiously sat down to leeward of the burning trees; the smoke being conveyed to them by the wind, produced a violent inflammation in all parts of their bodies which were uncovered. The inflammation, however, was most acute about the face and eyes. They were led home like blind men, in a "pretty pickle." They were very soon relieved by a solution of sugar of lead and opium, applied constantly with wet cloths, until the heat and pain subsided. I have never known fatal consequences to follow the application of the manchenele.

Mangrove—I must not forget to mention this tree, and its connexion with the collection and formation of soil, to which it is admirably adapted. A beautiful illustration of the formation of earth from the sea, is exhibited on the Florida reef and keys. In fact it may be traced from the incipient formation of various sponges coral, &c. to the establishment of dry land. So soon as the sponge, coral, or even a sand bank approaches within a foot or eighteen inches of the water, the mangrova attaches itself. The seed of the mangrove resembles a long bean 12 or 14 inches in length. As soon as ripe, it falls from the tree into the water, one end being heavier than the other, it floats about perpendicularly, until it reaches some shoal spot, when it fixes itself to the bottom, takes root, and becomes a tree. The roots of this tree in process of time form a complete network, in which all floating materials, sea weed and sand are collected. I have seen mangrove islands, (as they are called), of several acres in extent, which did not contain one single foot of *dry land*. Nay more—I have seen channel ways of 12 and 14 feet deep, passing through these islands, over which a natural bridge had been formed, by the mangrove roots. In other places, I have known a few mangrove trees, by attaching themselves to a small sand bank, collect large beds of sand around them, upon which the sea deposites its shells and birds of the air their eggs, and the seed of various plants which they may have collected in their migrations. In process of time, when a soil capable of supporting a stronger growth is formed, the mangrove having performed its destined use, dies and is supplanted. There can be no doubt, but that the whole of the Florida keys have been formed in this way. That is to say: by the growth of coral and sponges, the drift of sand by currents, the growth and offices of the mangrove, and depositions of the sea and of birds.

A naturalist, who is well qualified for the task, might reap an abundant harvest at Key West and along the reef. Many plants have been discovered on the keys, peculiar to the West Indies, and not known as indigenous to the United States, which have undoubtedly been brought over by birds from the tropics. These birds must be found by the naturalist who has time and patience to spend the whole year in this section of country, as they probably migrate at particular seasons. Several birds have already been found not hitherto known or described as inhabiting the United States. And why not others? The birds *peculiar* to the Florida keys may be had in great quantities, and shells and coral by cart loads, provided one is an adept at obtaining them.

SALT MANUFACTORY.

From the Barnstable Journal.

The manufacture of salt by solar evaporation whether regarded as a source of individual wealth, or as a branch of our national industry, is one of no little importance. Necessity compelled the inhabitants of this country to engage in it; and under the fostering care of our government, they have been encouraged to invest a million and a half of dollars in this manufacture. We shall give a history of the establishment of the manufacture in this country; an account of the improvements which have from time to time been made in the manner of constructing salt works; and, of the present condition of the manufacture.

Sixty years ago, there were many small establishments in this county for boiling salt from sea water. That of Messrs. Obed E. Smith and Job Chase, at Harwich, consisted of twelve kettles, of sixteen gallons each, set in mason work, and protected, by a low building from the weather. At first they [illegible] by a [illegible] pump, afterwards by a wind mill, and conveyed it in spouts to the boilers. This establishment was continued till after the close of the revolutionary war, a period of more than twenty years. In Falmouth and Barnstable there were similar establishments. In fact, the restrictions imposed on our commerce by the British parliament for several years prior to the revolution, by cutting off the supply of foreign salt, compelled almost every man on the seaboard to become a petty manufacturer. The exhorbitant price of foreign salt, and the distress occasioned by the revolution, obliged many to continue this petty business, and induced others to adopt other means for making salt for their own consumption. Soon after the close of that war, boiling salt was discontinued, and has not since been resumed in this county.

The salt made by boiling was a very inferior article. It was fine grained, and imperfectly separated from the lime salts of the bittern, and other impurities contained in sea water. Of the labor and expense of boiling salt, we may, without entering into an exact calculation, form a very correct estimation. In order to obtain a single bushel of salt, eight barrels, or 252 gallons of sea water had to be evaporated, for the most part, in kettles ill adapted to that purpose, hanging over a fire, or set in mason work unprotected from the weather.

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An apparently unimportant observation, one of those small incidents which often pave the way to great discoveries, established the fact that salt could be made in this climate by solar evaporation. Several salt boilers at Harwich remarked that some clam shells on the sea shore contained minute chrystals of salt. These they concluded must have been formed by the drying away of the water left in them by the tide. The correctness of this opinion they soon ascertained by filling several and setting them on posts. Mr. Ammiel Weeks, of that town, made another experiment, which was more satisfactory. He constructed a shallow box, open at the top, six feet in length by two in width, and divided into three compartments by narrow strips of a board placed crosswise on the inside. This he filled with sea water, and exposed to the sun's rays in fair weather, and at other times kept it covered. With this simple apparatus he manufactured salt sufficient for his own consumption. This experiment was made in the year 1774 or 1775, and was probably the first salt made in New England by solar evaporation.

About the same time that Mr. Weeks made his experiment, an unsuccessful attempt to manufacture salt was made at the Isle of Shoals. A vat about ten feet square, and a foot in depth, was scooped out in the ground, and made tight with a layer of clay. Over this a rude frame was placed, to support the boards that were laid over it to form a covering on the approach of a storm.

The first attempt to manufacture salt in works constructed on the plan now generally adopted in this country, was made in 1776 or 7, by John Sears of Dennis. He was a poor man and had previously led a sea-faring life. Possessing an inventive genius, he conceived a plan for manufacturing salt by a less tedious and less expensive process than the boiling down of sea water. Wanting the means to test the practicability of the plan, he associated himself with Edward Sears, Christopher and Edward Crowell. The latter had seen the works at the Isle of Shoals, to which reference has been made; but it does not appear that John Sears had any knowledge that salt had ever been made in works similar to the ones he proposed building.

The situation which they selected for the erection of their manufactory, is on Quivet Neck, in the northerly part of Dennis, [then Yarmouth] at a small distance from the sea shore. The vat, or bottom, as it is generally called, was constructed 100 feet in length and 10 in width and all on the same level. The flooring was white pine plank, laid on oaken sleepers, the latter running crosswise, and the former lengthwise. The gunnels were also of plank, eight inches deep and secured on the flooring by upright pieces mortised into the ends of the sleepers, and by knees passing under the flooring and on the outer sides of the gunnel pieces. The corners of the vat were also secured by knees. The roof was curiously fashioned. Rafters grooved on each side were permanently fastened to the gunnels, at the distance of from five to six feet of each other. The doors were made of a corresponding width, and consisted of several boards of the same length with the rafters, clamped together like a common door. These were slid obliquely upwards and downwards, in the grooves of the rafters, when occasion required, and they were prevented from sagging in the centre by slender rafters placed between the principal ones. It was soon found necessary to have a separate vat for chrystalizing the salt. A partition was accordingly placed across the original vat, dividing it into two.

For the two first years, water for the supply of his salt work was brought in pails from the sea shore; it was then removed about three-fourths of a mile, to the situation on which one-fourth of it now stands. A little before the close of the revolution, Mr. Sears procured one of the pumps of the British ship of war Somerset, wrecked on the coast of Cape Cod, and erected it for the supply of his manufactory with water, and to avoid the labor of bailing. About 1790 he constructed a mill on the plan of those now in common use.

Like other inventors, Mr. Sears did not escape the shafts of ridicule. For a long time his manufactory was known by the appellation of "John Sears' Folly," and to avoid the sneers of the vulgar, he constructed his mill in secret.

In Brewster, then Harwich, Mr. Scotto Clark, and rev. Mr. Dunster, commenced the manufacture a little before the close of the revolution. Their works were built on "Broad Point," in the north part of that town, and were constructed like Sears', except they were divided into three vats. They had no pump for several years—afterwards one constructed like a common hand pump. These works are now in good repair, and owned by Mark Clark. Mr. Nathaniel Freeman, of Brewster, also built salt works about the same time.

In Barnstable, the first salt works were built by Mr. Admo Hinckley and Nathaniel Gorham, in the year 1779. They were constructed on Mr. Sears' plan, about fifty feet in length and ten wide, and divided into two vats. The water for the manufactory was carted from the sea shore, about a fourth of a mile distant from the works.

In other parts of the county, there were works similar to the latter, for the manufacture of salt by solar evaporation, but they were all broken up soon after the close of the revolution.

SALT FORMATION

IN THE VALLEY OF THE OHIO.

The fifth article in the last number of the Journal of Science and Arts is entitled "Observations on the saliferous rock formation in the valley of the Ohio," by Dr. S. P. Hildreth, of Marietta. It conveys much curious and valuable information, parts of which we copy for the benefit of our readers.

"For many years after settlements had been commenced west of the Alleghany mountains, the inhabitants were entirely dependent on their brethren east of the Appalachian ridge for salt; an article so necessary to the existence and comfort of civilized man. It was transported, with immense labor, through narrow defiles, and almost impassable roads across the mountain ranges, on the backs of horses. Long trains of these useful animals might be seen toiling up the steep sides of the mountains, their uncouth pack-saddles laden with kegs of salt, iron ware, and other merchandise, destined for the use of the early settlers. This for a long time was the only mode of transportation. At length rude roads were constructed which could be traversed by wagons, and they caused some reduction in the cost of transportation, but it was not until the completion of the 'National or Cumberland road,' that travelling in carriages could be effected with either ease or safety. From the year 1790 to the year 1800, the price of salt varied from four to eight dollars per bushel; and it was supposed by the inhabitants, that its cost would always prove a serious drawback on the prosperity of the country. The upward navigation of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers was long and tedious, requiring from four to six months to accomplish the voyage from New Orleans, and the outlet being owned by a foreign nation, forbade the expectation of relief from that quarter. Iron, so indispensable in agricultural pursuits, was another heavy item of expense, and was, for many years, transported in the same tedious way, until iron ore was discovered in the Laurel mountains and furnaces were erected. From that period, they have been gradually extending down the river, until no portion of the United States is more cheaply or more abundantly supplied with iron than the valley of the Ohio. Salt, so valuable and so scarce in these early days, as to be looked upon almost as a luxury, has now become so abundant as to sell for half a cent per pound. The all wise and beneficent Creator, who formed this earth for the habitation of man, has stored it with all things necessary for his comfort and happiness. In every region remote from the ocean, he has deposited in the bowels of the earth, vast magazines of salt. The interior of Africa, Asia and America, contains, in the form of rock or native salt, or of springs, fountains or lakes, or of efflorescences, a sufficient supply for the wants of all the inhabitants. The valley of the Ohio, from its head water to Shawneetown, in Illinois, may be said to be based on a saliferous rock, affording an abundance of water, highly charged with muriate of soda, and affording it in abundance, wherever perforations have been made, of a sufficient depth to reach the precious deposit. There are many evidences of its extending, along the course of the Alleghany range, for more than one hundred miles in breadth, and for several hundred in length. The salt rock commences near its western and northern base, in the coal and sandstone region, and extends as far north and west as these two interesting formations are found. In Ohio, sandstone and coal are abundant, from the mouth of Big Beaver to some miles below the mouth of the Sciota, and they cover a tract of country, between these two points, from forty to eighty miles in width on the northern bank of the Ohio. If the salt deposit extends as far north as Lake Erie, it is probably very thin, or else it descends deep into the earth; as few or no indications of salt are found north of these boundaries. A few miles below the mouth of Big Sandy, the Ohio takes a more westerly course and the sandstone is left on its southern shore. At the western and northern termination of the sand rock, the lime rock commences and continues with little interruption to the Mississippi river, and the great northern lakes. Salt water can doubtless be found in all that region, where sandstone prevails, as the two formations are known to accompany each other. The superincumbent strata, composed of sandstone, argillite, marl-slate, &c. as will be more fully shown in another place, varies in thickness from five hundred to twelve hundred feet; and it appears to sink deeper into the earth, on or near the Ohio, as the salt rock is reached at less and less depth, as we ascend the streams discharging their waters into this river. This is especially the fact with the salt wells in the Muskingum and Big Kenhawa rivers. [illegible] short of two hundred and fifty feet, while thirty miles below it is eight hundred and fifty feet to the lower salt stratum. From several circumstances, it would seem to be a fact that the ancient inhabitants of this valley were not unacquainted with the use and the manufacture of salt. In wells at the Sciota Salines, and at the Blue Licks in Kentucky, the beds of furnaces, and large fragments of broken pots, made of coarse earthenware, were repeatedly found, at considerable depths below the present surface; affording strong presumptive evidence, that the quality of the water was known, and that it had been applied to the wants of man in ages long since passed away. Tusks and grinders of the elephant and mastodon, were also found in digging the salt wells at both these places. The attraction of wild beasts to these salines, probably first brought them to the notice of man. At the licks on the Kenhawa, several indications were discovered of their having been in use long before they were known to any white man.

"The first attempt at manufacturing salt in Ohio, was made about the year 1798, at what is now called the 'Old Sciota salt works.' This spot is in Jackson county, on the banks of a small creek, called Salt Creek, a tributary of the river Sciota. The wells were dug near the creek to the depth of twenty or thirty feet, and the salt water rose into the excavations from crevices

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in the rock below. The present mode of piercing the rocks was not known until many years after. The water thus procured was but weakly impregnated with salt, and required from six to eight hundred gallons to make a bushel of fifty pounds weight. It was also very dark colored, and filled with the bittern, composed chiefly of muriates of lime and magnesia; the manufacturers not giving it time to drain, but transferring it immediately from the kettles to the pack horses of the purchasers, who, transporting it into the various settlements, sold it to the inhabitants for three and four dollars per bushel, as late as the year 1808. This saline was thought to be so important to the country, that when this territory was erected into a state in the year 1802, a tract of six miles square was set apart by congress for the use of the state, embracing this saline. Two other tracts of [illegible] hundred and forty acres each, were also reserved for the same purpose, one on Salt Creek in Muskingum county, and one in [illegible]ware county, as too valuable to fall into the hands of individuals, lest they should create a monopoly of the article; these being the [illegible] places then known in Ohio where salt could be made. A special [illegible] was passed by the legislature, in the year 1804, regulating the management of these salines, and an agent appointed to rent out the small lots to manufacturers, laid out on the borders of the creeks, where salt water was found most abundant. The rent demanded was sixteen cents per year on each gallon of capacity in the kettles, and no one person was allowed to use more than four thousand, nor less than six hundred gallons in each furnace, guarding here also, carefully, against monopoly. The agent was authorised to inspect the salt before it was offered for sale, and to lay off suitable wood lots for the use of the furnace holders, free of expense. The amount manufactured in any one year, never produced a revenue to exceed five hundred dollars. As other and much better saline springs were discovered on the navigable streams, the works at the agencies went gradually to decay; and finally, in the year 1826, the 'salt reservations' were sold and the proceeds placed in the treasury of the state. In the year 1808, a new era commenced in the manufacture of salt. Previously to this time the water had been obtained from wells sunk no deeper than to perforate the superincumbent earth to the rocks below, through some crevice in which it had made its way to the surface. But now, attempts were made to come at the sources of the fountain, by boring, or drilling through the rock formations, to the saline deposit itself. The first trial of this kind was made on the Big Kenhawa, six miles above Charleston, and only to the depth of seventy or eighty feet; on further trials, it was discovered, that the water became stronger as they descended, and the first wells were gradually deepened to three hundred and fifty feet, with the most satisfactory results. Water was obtained of such strength that seventy-five gallons would make a bushel of salt of fifty pounds weight, or as much as four hundred gallons from the old surface wells; producing an immense saving of time and labor to the manufacturer, and a much better article to the consumer. The space, now occupied by the salt wells, extends to the shores of the Kenhawa, and is about seventy miles from the mouth of the river. The upper wells reach the salt rock at two hundred and fifty feet. The lower wells strike it at a number of feet deeper, the rock dipping to the north as it recedes from the mountains, or descends the river."

SHIPMENTS ON THE OHIO.

Law case before the supreme court of Ohio, at Cincinnati, at May term, 1833.

Josiah Lawrence, *vs.* James and Robert McGregor.

Assumpsit brought against defendants as owners of the steam boats Tecumseh and Amazon, to recover the value of certain goods shipped at Cincinnati for New Orleans and lost at Louisville. Plea non assumpsit. The bill of lading, on which the action was founded, was for goods shipped on the Amazon for New Orleans, but there was a memorandum on the left hand margin of the bill, in these words:—"*Shipped in Cincinnati, on board steamer Tecumseh, to be re-shipped at Louisville per steamer Amazon.*" It was admitted that the defendants owned the boats Tecumseh and Amazon, and that the goods were actually [illegible] port, below the falls of Ohio; and also that the latter boat being of the larger class, was, at low water, employed below the falls, and the Tecumseh above, and in taking freight to the boats below.

A great number of witnesses were examined before the jury. From the testimony, it appeared, that until about the year 1819, it was the general custom to transport merchandise, at low water, around the falls on drays. About that time, some carriers began to use flat boats in carrying goods over the falls; and from thence to this time, the use of flat boats for that purpose was continued by some, and was on the increase. Both methods were still used; and it was now somewhat uncertain which mode was most in use. The transportation over the falls in flats was preferred by many, because it kept the goods cleaner, exposed them less to the heat and sun, left them in a better state for the market in the lower country, and was less expensive. That way of passing the falls was more hazardous than by drays, but that, in the opinion of many engaged in the trade, was counterbalanced by the superior condition of the goods. The insurance offices charged 1·8 per cent. increased premium for risks that were intended to pass the falls in flats. Owners frequently obtained permission of the shipper to pass the falls in flats—either given verbally, or by memorandum on the bill of lading: though flats were often used without such leave. It was more convenient to the carrier to pass in flats. It was the custom of the trade to consider the memorandum on the bill of lading, as to shipments in other boats, or flats, as a part of the bill of lading.

It was also proven, that when the Tecumseh arrived at Louisville with the cargo in question, the state of the river was such as to raise a doubt about taking her safely over the falls and back again. The pilot declined taking her over, though some witnesses testified that at that time, and for several days afterwards, there was sufficient water for her to pass. The goods were moved from the Tecumseh and laden in flats, but, owing to the state of the wind, the pilot refused to take flats over the falls. They were then moored for the night and properly guarded. Early the next morning, the steamboat Lady Franklin run foul of the flats, sunk them, and although every exertion was made to save the goods, they were lost. The net loss to the plaintiffs was admitted to be $994.

In the progress of the cause, the plaintiff called a witness to prove the agreement of the parties to this bill of lading, that the goods should be carried over the falls *in the Tecumseh*. *Storer*, for the defendants, objected to this evidence, and the objection was argued by *Storer*, and by *N. Wright* and *C. Hammond*, contra. The *court* held it incompetent to vary the terms of a written contract by parol evidence, and rejected the testimony. The testimony, the court said, was not offered to establish a general usage, but to vary this particular bill of lading.

The cause was argued to the jury, by *N. Wright* and *C. Hammond* for plaintiffs, and by *Storer & Fox* for the defendants.

Judge *Wright*, in giving the cause to the jury, stated: That the bill of lading, which was the contract between the parties, was prima facie the true contract, and to be continued according to its terms and legal effect, though if there were any general or common usage of the trade, affecting the manner of executing such contracts, that usage would be regarded as a part of the contract, and within the contemplation of the parties. A compliance with such contract in accordance with such general usage, would in law satisfy its stipulations. But a usage to affect such a contract, must be *common*, and of *general notoriety*, not fluctuating, or dependant upon whim, caprice, or any such circumstance. Where the bill of lading is in the usual form, and a carrier would reserve to himself the privilege of deviating from the usual course of the trade, he should stipulate for the privilege and vary the contract accordingly. The bill of lading is to be taken altogether, including the memorandum—in this case the contract includes the memorandums as to the employment of the Tecumseh to take the goods from Cincinnati to the Amazon. Its legal effect obliges the carrier to take the freight from Cincinnati, in the Tecumseh, to the Amazon, below the falls; but as the usage of the river when the water is too low for the small boats safely to pass over the falls, admits the transportation from Louisville to Shippingport by other means; that usage the law regards as incorporated into the contract, and within its stipulations.

A carrier is in general liable for all injury to freight entrusted to him, which does not result from the act of God, (inevitable accident) or the enemies of the state. He undertakes for the safe keeping of the goods, the safe conduct of the vessel, and the consequent employment of the proper means, navigators, lights, watch, &c. for her preservation. He is bound not to expose the freight to any extraordinary hazard or peril. And although while in the customary course of the trade, the carrier is excused from making good losses resulting from inevitable accident or the public enemies of the state; yet if he deviate from that course and expose the freight, and loss accrue, even from these causes, before he has returned to the course of the trade, it falls upon the owner. Such excuse from responsibility is only available while the carrier is in the prosecution of his voyage in the *usual* route. You will then inquire, what was the state of the water when the Tecumseh arrived at Louisville, and if satisfied there was sufficient for her safe passage over the falls, it was the duty of the defendants under their contract to carry the plaintiff's goods over in that boat. And if with sufficient water for the Tecumseh to pass the falls, the defendants [illegible] the freight for their own convenience or profit, and the goods were lost by such transit, by inevitable accident or public enemies, the loss would be that of the carrier, because of the deviation from the contract and the exposure of the freight to increased peril. If you find this to be the case on the evidence, it will not be necessary to inquire further, for the plaintiff's right to recover would be complete.

If you shall find the stage of water to be such, that when the Tecumseh arrived at Louisville, it was unsafe for her to pass the falls, then it was lawful for the carriers to overcome that obstruction to the navigation in the manner adopted in the common course of the trade. If that common course is to light the boat over the falls by unlading a part of the cargo into lighters, or to unlade the whole cargo and transport it around the falls on drays, or carry over in flats, the carrier must adopt the usual course at his peril. But if two ways are in common use of overcoming the obstacle, one known to be more hazardous than the other; the carrier adopts the most hazardous method at his own risk, and if loss intervene, it is his loss. This results from the nature of the employment—he has the entire control of the goods and those employed in navigating the vessel, and although for some purposes the carrier is agent for others than the owners, he is not permitted for his own convenience to subject

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freight entrusted to him to any but the common and known perils but at his own responsibility.

It is not disputed but there are two ways of transporting goods past the falls of Ohio in low water in use, one by drays, and the other by flat-boats. It is urged that the whole current of the testimony, the price of insurance and the nature of the transportation itself, conclusively show the use of flat-boats the most hazardous course, and therefore not presumed to have been contemplated by the parties, and at the risk of the carrier. It is for you to judge from all the circumstances in proof, and if you find the use of drays the least perilous, the defendants are responsible for the consequence of adopting the other course; and the circumstance of the increased hazard of the transport by flats being counterbalanced in the estimation of some, by the more cleanly appearance of the goods or their less exposure to the heat of the sun, does not affect the question, although it may afford good reason for those having the power of choice to incur the increased hazard in the expectation of realizing the advantage. The right of the shipper, and the liability of the carrier remain untouched. If on the other hand you find the known general course of the trade to be to employ flats at low water to transport goods over the falls, then and then only, would the carrier acquire the right under the contract, in case the water was too low to go over with the Tecumseh, to lade the merchandise in that kind of craft, and only in such case can you be called to inquire whether the flat-boats were properly moored and safely manned and guarded. If the goods were so laden without the contract, and while they remained without, a loss even if occasioned by inevitable accident, would fall upon the carrier. If so laden within the contract, as being according to the known custom of the trade, or the least perilous course, then if proper care was bestowed for the protection of them, and loss resulted from inevitable accident, it is to be borne by the shipper. In either case if the loss resulted from negligence or the wanton act of the navigators of the Lady Franklin, the defendants are responsible to the plaintiffs and they have their remedy over, against those concerned in the Lady Franklin.

Verdict for the plaintiff, and judgment.

BOLTON *vs.* CALDER & WILSON.

This was an action of trespass on the case, against the defendants as the proprietors of the Reading and Harrisburg stage coach, tried before justice Rogers, at a circuit court for Dauphin county, Pennsylvania, the 16th April, 1833.

When his honor summed up the evidence in pointed terms in favor of the plaintiff, the jury found for the plaintiff $1,200 damages. On appeal to the supreme court in Bank, the cause was argued for the plaintiff by Fisher and Krause, and for the defendants by Wiedman and Norris.

Chief justice Gibson delivered the opinion of the court—

Among the reasons assigned for a new trial, there is but one which deserves to be noticed; and there is so little even in it, that were it not necessary to correct an apparent misapprehension on the subject of it, and in a matter of very general concern, it would not be made a subject of remark. The movement of carriages passing on our turnpike roads in opposite directions is regulated by special enactment; but there is no positive law to regulate the passing of those who are travelling in the same direction. The defendants gave evidence of its being a custom in the latter case, for the leading carriage to incline to the right, the other making the transit at the same time by the left; whence it is attempted to be shown that the injury suffered by the plaintiff, had been occasioned by his own neglect of this custom which was said to have acquired the consistence of a law, but which was very properly exploded by the court. Nothing should be more pertinaciously resisted than these attempts to transfer the functions of the judge from the bench to the witnesses' stand, by evidence of customs in derogation of the general law, that would involve the responsibilities of the parties in rules, whose existence, perhaps, they had no reason to suspect before they came to be applied to their rights. If the existence of a law be so obscure as to be known to the constitutional expositors of it, only through the evidence of witnesses, it is no extravagant assumption to take for granted that the party to be affected was ignorant of it at the time when the knowledge of it would have been most material to him, and to try a man's actions by a rule with which he had not an opportunity to become acquainted before hand, is the very worst species of tyranny. The probability of actual ignorance in respect to this particular custom, is greater than in respect to almost any other that can be imagined, as the traveller might reasonably suppose the whole law of the road to be comprised in the statutory admonition that meets the eye at every gate and bridge. The use of parol proof has been, to say the least, sufficiently extended by suffering it to control the private written laws which individuals establish between themselves for the regulation of their rights in particular transactions, without suffering it to control the general law of the land. The judge, therefore, did a valuable service to the stability of the law by freeing the cause from a matter so entirely foreign to it. It remains therefore to be seen whether the rule laid down by him, is founded in the principle of justice and reason. It was not pretended that the mail coaches are entitled to precedence, or the enjoyment of any particular privileges. They are indeed protected by an act of congress from being wilfully and wantonly obstructed or delayed: but in every other respect they are on a footing with all other carriages; and it is right perhaps that it should be so. Experience proves that the drivers of them are not the most eligible depositories of power; and there are few who have not to do with them either as passengers or travellers. The public consequently has an important interest in having them in common with the drivers of other carriages, held strictly to the measure of their rights; and this can be done only by making their employers sureties for their good conduct, as far as the law permits, and liable for their acts. They are seldom of sufficient estate to respond in damages to any considerable extent; and to treat them as exclusively liable, would in most instances be a denial of redress. With these considerations in view, the judge stated the law to be that a traveller may use the middle or either side of the road at his pleasure, and without being bound to turn aside for another travelling in the same direction, provided there be convenient room to pass on the one hand or on the other. And why should it be otherwise? The law to regulate the deflection of those who are travelling in opposite directions was designed for the specific case mentioned in it, the object being to avoid, by a preconcerted movement, the collision which might otherwise ensue from the mutual misapprehension of intention frequently observable between foot passengers. But this uncertainty is productive of no collision between carriages travelling in the same direction, and the principle of the enactment is therefore not to be extended to it. It is certainly but reasonable that the traveller to be accommodated should be at the pains to give his carriage the proper direction to enable him to profit by his superior speed, and if there be convenient room to pass on any particular part of the road, he ought not to complain. If there be not, it is doubtless the duty of the other to afford it, on request made, by yielding him an equal share of the road, if that be adequate and practicable; if not the object must be deferred till the parties arrive at ground more favorable to its accomplishment. Should the leading traveller refuse to comply, he would be answerable for it. But to effect the passage by a forcible collision with him is not to be justified, redress being demandable only by due course of law. Conformably to this, it was impossible to doubt that the injury entitled the plaintiff to his action, and as it clearly appeared to have been the effect of negligence, the verdict was properly rendered for such damages as will probably induce the proprietors of mail coaches to take care that their drivers be more attentive to the rights of others, for the future.

Judgment affirmed. [*Lancaster Journal.*

SLAVES, AND SLAVERY IN VIRGINIA.

From the (Richmond) Farmer's Register.

The editor considers the question of slave-labor and slavery as coming fairly within his province, and accordingly we have in this number large extracts from two articles on the subject, (both written in Virginia) which first appeared in the American Quarterly Review. From one of these we quote the following paragraphs, which, so far as they relate to the public lands, express the views of a rapidly increasing proportion of the people of Virginia.

We believe that means may be found to colonize the annual surplus of the slaves of Virginia, and to purchase such a portion of that surplus as it may be necessary to purchase.

The annual increase of slaves in Virginia (leaving out of view the 6,000 supposed to be taken off to the southern markets) is less than 5,000. If this number of slaves be valued at the average of $200 per head, the sum necessary to purchase them will be about a million of dollars. To defray the expense of their deportation to Africa and subsistence there for some months will, on the satisfactory calculation of Mr. Mathew Carey, to which we must refer, at $25 per head for adults and children, require $125,000—add to which the cost of deportation of 1,200 free blacks, (their annual increase), $30,000, and we have the sum of $160,000. That the state of Virginia has no possible means of purchasing 5,000 slaves *per annum* is obvious. But were the entire cost, that of transportation only, $150,000, we should insist that the legislature take it into serious consideration how far that expense exceeds its means. In any event, our adversaries will allow us to set down the item of transportation to the charge of the state: if this be all, it is to offer no insurmountable embarrassment. Perhaps it may be thought best to deport the free negroes first, and then the whole expense is that of transportation. Where, however, shall we find that greater fund which will presently be needed for the purchase of the surplus of the slaves, and before long for the purchase of a part of the capital number? There is not far off a fund to which we believe our eyes may be turned. We have come to the conclusion that such a fund is the proceeds of the public lands in the treasury of the general government; and we do now invite the friends of the removal and colonization of the negroes to fix hereafter their thoughts, and to press their pretensions on this fund. The annual income to government from the public lands is now estimated at three millions. Let one-third of this amount be demanded for this object, to be under the entire management of the state authorities.

In coincidence with the known opinion of Virginia, we are not willing to demand a simple appropriation of money from congress. But we are inclined to think, that an appropriation from the receipts of the public lands would not be liable to the constitutional objection, which would forbid a grant of money raised by taxes. We have an unfeigned respect for constitutional scruples, but we are not ambitious ourselves of entertaining more scruples than Mr. Madison. Let us hear, then, what that greatest living authority says upon the subject, in his letter to Mr. Gurley, of December last:

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"In contemplating the pecuniary resources needed for the removal of such a number to a great distance, my thoughts and hopes have been long turned to the rich fund presented in the western lands of the nation, which will soon entirely cease to be under a pledge for another object. The great one in question is truly of a national character, and it is known that distinguished patriots not dwelling in slave holding states have viewed the object in that light, and would be willing to let the national domain be a resource in effecting it. Should it be remarked that the states, though all may be interested in relieving our country from the colored population, are not equally so; it is but fair to recollect that the sections most to be benefitted are those whose cessions created the fund to be disposed of. I am aware of the constitutional obstacle which has presented itself; but if the general will should be reconciled to an application of the territorial fund to the removal of the colored population, a grant to congress of the necessary authority could be carried, with little delay, through the forms of the constitution."

Before any one condemns us for looseness of construction of the constitution, we beg further that he will read Mr. Jefferson's letter to Mr. Sparks, (vol. iv. pp. 388—391); we adopt all the qualifications therein mentioned.

Judge Marshall most properly suggests that the objection, in a political view, to the application of this ample fund, is very much lessened, in his estimation, by the fact that our lands are becoming an object for which the states are to scramble, and which threatens to sow the seeds of discord among us, instead of being what they might be—a source of national wealth.

A great part of the proceeds of the public domain once appropriated to this object, there would soon be found no insurmountable difficulty in the removal of the necessary number in Virginia. But it is said that were congress disposed to give a million annually for the specific object of the removal of the slaves, it would feel bound to bestow it proportionally on all the slave-holding states, or if all be not inclined to receive it, then on those which would be. We answer, that if congress should consent to pledge a certain share of the revenue from the lands for the purchase and removal (under the laws of the states) of the slaves of the United States, we have no doubt it would be thought wise to begin with the effectual relief of the greatest sufferer first. A minute's attention to the following statement of gen. Brodnax, will shew the immense claims of Virginia.

"The state of Virginia contains, by the last census, less than one-fifteenth part of the whole *white* population of the United States; it contains *more* than one-seventh of the free negroes; and it possesses between a fourth and a fifth of all the *slaves* in the union.

"Virginia has a greater number of slaves than any other state in the union—and more than Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama and Tennessee, all put together—and more than four times as many as either of them. Louisiana and South Carolina are the only states in which the slaves are more numerous than the white population; and Virginia has more slaves, without estimating her great and unfortunate proportion of free persons of color, than both these states put together. Nay, one half of the state, that which lies on the east of the Blue Ridge of mountains, itself contains nearly as many."

But if congress should decline to grant from this fund for the specific purpose of the removal of the blacks, and prefer to distribute among the states the portion of money severally assignable to them, let such portion as would fall to Virginia, be earnestly claimed of the legislature for this object. The annual receipt of between two and three hundred thousand dollars, which Mr. Clay's bill (limited to five years duration), would assign her, would not be adequate for compensating masters on the foregoing plan, but it might suffice for doing an immense deal of good on the plan in Mr. Jefferson's letter to Mr. Sparks, the purchase of the children at a small but just price, the children to be disposed of either according to the particulars of that plan, or under any other plan which might be speedier, and less burdensome to the persons to be charged with rearing them.

We believe that before half a million of blacks were conveyed to Africa, there would not remain a master obstinately resolved to retain his slaves, except in the most southern and south western states, where slave labor is next to essential (we hope not absolutely), for the cultivation of the good lands.

We exhort the people of Virginia, then, first to seek aid from their own legislature to the extent it can be afforded; second, to insist on the passage of permanent laws going as far in the subject as public opinion will justify; and third, to assert their claims to a share in the proceeds of the public lands. Let it not, by her fastidiousness, be made true, that she ceded an empire to the general government, under a virtual condition that she alone was to derive no benefit from it.

Suppose then, means be thus found to defray the expense of emancipating and transporting them to some other country, the next question is, where a suitable asylum may be found to which to convey them? We answer, that Africa affords the most eligible situation for such an asylum, and that we hope Virginia would avail herself of the noble beginning which has been made by the American colonization society at Liberia.

JUDGE CLAYTON AND THE UNITED STATES BANK.

From the Georgia Journal.

Athens, July 15, 1833.

MESSRS. EDITORS—A report is prevailing, and to which wide circulation has been given by the newspapers that I have changed my opinion on the bank question. Lest silence on my part might seem to give it even the semblance of truth, I am constrained reluctantly to appear in your paper to contradict such an unjust and unfounded suggestion. Such report, as I understand, has gone forth by reason of a letter addressed to some individual in Philadelphia through the agency of one of the directors of the branch of the United States' bank at Washington city, by giving information of a transaction in that bank relative to myself, which it shall be the purpose of this communication to explain, and will, I have no doubt, be perfectly satisfactory to every human being, of the least liberality, who shall do me the justice to read it. When I left home in November last, to take my seat in congress, I carried with me a large sum of money, in Georgia currency, to fulfil a contract for machinery in the city of New York. I applied at the above bank to exchange it for United States bills, but upon being informed that a premium of 7 per cent. would be demanded, I declined it, and determined to send it back to Augusta, for the purpose of purchasing a bill of exchange, where, as I was informed, one could be obtained for one and a half per cent.—Accordingly, by a safe private conveyance, I forwarded it to an individual, with an earnest request to effect the purchase and return the draft without delay, as by my contract I was to be entitled to a deduction of three per cent. for prompt payment. This took place on the 13th of January, and on the 28th of the same month, I received a letter from the bearer of the funds informing me of their delivery, and enclosing the receipt of the person to whom they had been remitted. From this last individual I could learn nothing, though repeatedly addressed. Thus strongly threatened with a heavy loss, and still more harrassed by the consequences it was likely to involve, I, of course, awaited the event with unusual anxiety, and, as might well be imagined, with no little interruption to my public duties. I was held in this suspense during the whole session of congress, and, finally, was informed by a friend, to whom I had written on the subject, that my agent had used the money and had failed.

This information I received on the 5th March, the day after congress adjourned, and but two days after I had voted, in a minority of 41, that I believed the bank of the United States an unsafe depository of the public money. It is impossible, if it were necessary to describe the state of my feelings at the moment. A large sum of money faithlessly embezzled—an urgent contract claiming performance—without the means of satisfying the demand—from home, and consequently away from all my resources—in a land of strangers, and compelled by circumstances to remain at Washington, it may readily be conceived what was my situation, and that situation may be safely submitted to the reflection of a liberal community. I had sufficient proof, at the time, what generous minds will do under such an unlooked for difficulty. As soon as I read the letter announcing my misfortune, I handed it over to some one of the gentlemen with whom I boarded, and mentioned the distressing perplexity it occasioned in the failure of my engagement, a matter of much more concern to me than the loss itself. In an instant, and unsolicited, general Robinson, a senator from Indiana, stept aside to a table, and knowing the amount I wanted, (being considerably less than I had lost), drew a note for it, endorsed it himself, and was immediately and voluntarily succeeded in that kind and magnanimous act by judge Mangum and general Hawkins, of North Carolina, judge Bouldin, of Virginia, colonel King, of Alabama and captain McIntire, of Maine, who returned and presented it to me, remarking that they hoped it would relieve my present embarrassment. In the glow of feeling which such a generous act inspired, and certainly in violent contrast with those under which but a few moments before I had suffered, I accepted their kind offer, though it was to borrow money from a bank against which, politically, I was and am still opposed, not however without expressing my apprehension that their friendly interference would be unavailing, or that an improper construction would be placed upon the transaction. To obviate which colonel King, with that readiness demanding my most unqualified acknowledgments, repaired with the note to the bank, explained fully all the circumstances under which the loan was asked, and was wholly instrumental in procuring the accommodation. The bank asked, and I have no doubt expected nothing else but an ample security for their money, and though the above endorsers are worth two hundred thousand dollars, yet to observe strictly the rules of the bank, its officers required of me a town endorser, or what was tantamount to it. This was complied with. But a day or two after, general Van Ness, the president of one of the city banks, hearing of my loss and the great inconvenience to which it subjected me, very generously offered me the same accommodation. Thus then a loan sought in consequence of an urgent and unforeseen necessity, created by an unexpected act of perfidy—acquired in the most open manner—upon the best security—from an institution whose business it is to lend money for gain—professing to be impartial in its favors, and made in strict compliance with its rules, has been tortured into a peace offering, designed and so received by me, to quiet my opposition to its re-establishment! Language fails me to express, in a sense of becoming self-respect, the scorn which is due to such heartless illiberality. I will, however, do the officers of the bank the justice to say, I do not believe they intended their agency in this matter, to have any such effect, and therefore cannot be so illiberal as to expect it, whatever may be the views of a single director, in the unkind and not less false suggestion to which his gratuitous information has given rise.

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I have taken the liberty to mention the names of my endorsers, with no motive of an ostentatious display of the high character with which my credit has been supported, but to avail myself of their distinguished reputation to sustain the facts of my statement, so far as connected with the bank transaction, and to a public not always too credulous or indulgent towards a narrative intended to refute a slander, I have thought it not amiss to tender a list of the witnesses. A. S. CLAYTON.

P. S. It is reasonably expected that this communication will find a place in all those papers where it has been deemed a matter of such public interest to convict me of inconsistency.

COLONEL DRAYTON'S SPEECH.

WASHINGTON SOCIETY.

At the celebration of the fourth of July, in the city of Charleston, by the Washington society; one of the vice presidents gave the following toast:

The hon. Wm. Drayton—The patriot "without fear and without reproach,"—estimable in private, illustrious in public life—*all the ends he aims at, are his country's.*

When the enthusiastic plaudits with which this toast was received had subsided, col. *Drayton* rose and spoke as follows:

FELLOW CITIZENS—Although you have been induced, by personal kindness, to speak of me in a manner which I am very far from meriting, I yet receive your flattering compliment with the most grateful feelings, not because it is flattering, but because it manifests your approbation of my conduct, and your opinions, that the exertions which I have made in the cause of our country, and for the preservation of your rights, however inefficient they have been, have been all that my humble abilities enabled me to render, and that they have been directed by purity of intention. But, fellow citizens, any thing relating to myself, is unconnected with the object of this meeting. We have met for the purpose of celebrating the anniversary of the Declaration of our Independence; of giving utterance to the deep and heart felt emotions which are associated with the recollection, that by the toils, and the sufferings, and the valor, and the blood of our ancestors, we were raised from colonial vassalage to sovereign power. Whilst thus rejoicing, we ought, also, to remember, with emotions scarcely less intense and reverential, that our ancestors, after experiencing the evils of an embarrassing and feeble confederacy, framed that constitution which was ratified by the people of the United States, to secure the blessings of independence, liberty and union, to themselves and their posterity. Greater blessings than independence, liberty and union, were never bestowed by man upon man; and yet have we witnessed a period, when some of the posterity of our glorious ancestors would have hazarded the possession of these inestimable treasures, to promote the triumph of a pernicious sophistry, first promulgated in the "exposition and protest," which was published by the order of the legislature in December, 1828. These observations are not made by me, as prefatory to an elaborate investigation of the odious doctrine of nullification—a doctrine so paradoxical, as to involve in its mere statement the palpable contradiction that a single state, under no other restraint than her own discretion, can, within her limits, annul the laws of a government, which the people of all the states have solemnly bound themselves to obey, as "the supreme laws of the land"—that a state can exempt herself from the burthens, and participate in the benefits of the union—can be a member of the body politic, and absolve herself from the obligation which it imposes—that these gross incongruities might be sustained, what have we not endured? Whilst the accomplishment of nullification was in progress, the practical effect of which, it was alleged, would be a peaceful and constitutional remedy for our grievances, can we ever forget that clubs were organized in every city and hamlet, by whose irresponsible will, the constitution and the laws were controlled—that thousands of volunteers were raised, holding themselves ready, at a minute's warning, to march and to fight, as if a foreign enemy were hovering upon our coast—that large sums of money were expended by the legislature for the purchase of arms and ammunition, to reimburse which, we must be heavily taxed—that our youth were allured from their appropriate avocations, and the softer sex from their characteristic pursuits, to mingle in the strife of political contention—that ancient friendships were dissolved, the ties of blood rent asunder, and the domestic circles, where affection, and harmony, and confidence should reign, embittered by party rancor—that a portion of our citizens were proscribed and disfranchised, because they would not take an unrighteous and unconstitutional oath—that our whole state was convulsed to its centre—and that even the horrors of civil war were anticipated by those who deprecated it as the direst calamity with which an offending people could be visited by an avenging deity?

These, fellow citizens, were some of the bitter fruits of nullification. What are the benefits which it has conferred upon us? We were told, that it was resorted to in order that we might be relieved from the intolerable oppressions of an unconstitutional protective tariff; and yet the convention which annulled all the protective tariff acts, by their ordinance in November, 1832, formally repealed that ordinance in March, 1833, although a tariff act was then in existence, which enacted, that protective duties should be levied until June, 1842, which, thereafter, perpetuated "the protective system as the settled policy of the country," so far as it could be perpetuated by legislation, in the event of a uniform duty of 20 per cent. producing a revenue beyond the expenditure of the government, which substituted cash in lieu of credit duties upon all imports, and which introduced the innovation of the home valuation of imports, thus increasing, by 40 per cent. the amount upon which the duties are to be assessed after the year 1842; and although that convention, in the "address to the people of South Carolina," resolved that until these abuses, (the protective tariff acts), "shall be reformed, *no more taxes should be paid here*," and in the "address to the people of the United States," declared, "if we submit to this system of unconstitutional oppression, we shall voluntarily sink into slavery, and transmit that ignominious inheritance to our children. We will not, we cannot, we dare not submit to this degradation, *and our resolve is fixed and unalterable, that a protecting tariff shall no longer be enforced within the limits of South Carolina. We stand upon the principles of everlasting justice, and no human power shall drive us from our position.*" That position, nevertheless, has been abandoned—the ordinance of nullification, founded upon "the principles of everlasting justice," has been repealed by the convention which ordained it—and "*a protective tariff*" is "*enforced within the limits of South Carolina.*" I shall make no further comments upon the conduct and the proceedings of the convention of South Carolina. No powers of eloquence could more vividly exhibit their character, than a bare reference to what they have done, and what they have undone. I take no pleasure in dwelling upon so humiliating a topic, and shall quit it, with simply expressing my fervent hope, that our sad experience of the evils of nullification, and the rejection of its dogmas by every legislature in the union which has considered them, may operate as a solemn and salutary warning to deter others from imitating the example of those, who, had they not been "driven from their position," would have plunged their state into all the miseries of anarchy, and bloodshed, and civil war, and, ultimately, have subjected themselves to the degradation of submission to the government which they had resisted, or of dependance upon a foreign power.

If the convention which assembled at Columbia, in March last, had limited their acts to the repeal of their ordinance of nullification, the wounds which have been inflicted upon our distracted state, might have been healed by the lenient hand of time; the wrongs and injuries which a minority have suffered, might have been forgotten, or forgiven, and gradually, that harmony might have re-appeared which formerly prevailed among us. But, unfortunately, with that convention originated another ordinance, declaring, "that the allegiance of the citizen of this state, is due to the said state, and that obedience only, and not allegiance, is due by them to any other power or authority; and empowering the general assembly of the said state, from time to time, when they may deem it proper, to provide for the administration, to the citizens and officers of the state, or such of the officers as they may think fit, of suitable oaths or affirmations, binding them to the observance of such allegiance, and abjuring all other allegiance; and also to define what shall amount to a violation of their allegiance, and to provide the proper punishment for such violation." With such an ordinance as this, to be enforced in the discretion of the legislature, to talk of our rights and liberties is an insult to common sense.

I am aware of the argument which is relied upon by our political opponents, that test oaths are required in several of the states, and that a state may, unquestionably, insist that the citizens, in the form of an oath, shall manifest their obedience to her constitution and her laws. These positions I do not controvert. I except not to a test oath, in the abstract, but to the purposes to which it has been applied. The federal constitution was as directly ratified by the people of this state, as was the constitution of the state. The allegiance of a citizen of the United States to the United States, is as substantive and obligatory, as is that of a citizen of the state to the state. Within the sphere of federal allegiance, the United States are supreme: within the sphere of state allegiance, the state is supreme. Federal and state allegiance are perfectly consistent: instead of interfering with, they mutually strengthen each other. Notwithstanding the distinction which is drawn in the ordinance of the convention, between allegiance and obedience, (suggested, I presume, by the same spirit of paradoxical subtilty as the dogmas of nullification), their meanings are identical. Allegiance is the obedience which every citizen owes to the constitution and laws of his country. A citizen of South Carolina is also a citizen of the United States, consequently, he owes allegiance to the constitution and laws of South Carolina, and to the constitution and laws of the United States. Should he, nevertheless, be involved in any difficulty, proceeding from an apparent or real variance, between the laws of the state and of the United States, by the constitution of the latter, "the laws of the United States made in pursuance of the constitution, shall be the supreme law of the land:" should doubts arise, in the judgment of the citizen, whether a law of the United States has been "made in pursuance of the constitution," those doubts, by the provisions of the federal constitution, are to be resolved, in the last resort, by the federal judiciary. Keeping steadily in view the true meaning of allegiance, and these provisions of the constitution of the United States, no citizen can be embarrassed by the subject of his allegiance. When, therefore, the state, by an ordinance, requires her citizens to take a test oath, by which they abjure all allegiance, excepting to herself, it is obvious, that they must either violate that allegiance, which they are constitutionally and conscientiously bound to observe towards the United States, or by refusing to do so, be rendered amenable to any pains and penalties, (extending even to death and confiscation of property), which may be imposed upon

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them by the legislature of the states. It is against such a test oath as this, that I enter my protest—a test oath, unconstitutional, vindictive and cruel, exhibiting a melancholy proof of the reckless extremes, into which a dominant party will rush for the attainment of their object, when misled by narrow prejudices, blinded by exclusive feelings, and infuriated by burning resentments. Until the ordinance containing this test oath, be annulled, it must be execrated by all who recognize the federal constitution as a constitution. It usurps the exercise of a power which no state, *in the union*, can grant—invades the sanctuary of the heart—tramples upon the sacred rights of conscience—and prescribes to citizens of South Carolina and of the United States, to abjure that allegiance from which they cannot be absolved, excepting by expatriation or revolution.

The radical error which pervades all the reasonings of the advocates of nullification is this—they have not distinguished between constitutional and natural rights—between rights under the constitution and beyond it. As this state always acknowledged the federal constitution, she could not be relieved from a protective tariff, upon the ground of its being unconstitutional, otherwise than in one of the modes warranted by the constitution, among which nullification was not included. When, by her sole authority, she undertook to annul a protective tariff, she exercised an extra-constitutional and revolutionary power, derived from the rights of man and of nature, paramount to all constitutions, although she never declared that she had seceded from the union. Had she made this declaration, and acted upon it, she would have been entitled to adopt such measures as she deemed necessary for the accomplishment of her object, for in revolutions self-preservation is the supreme law. She might then have called upon her citizens to renounce their allegiance to the union, and have nullified the constitution and the laws of the union. Placed in this situation, she must either have settled her differences with the United States peaceably, by treaty, or failing in this, she must have appealed to arms, and abided by the issue of the contest. In this struggle, she might have considered those citizens who were not for her to be against her, those who were not her friends to be her foes, and her citizens would then have been compelled, at their peril, to choose the side which they would maintain.

Before resuming my seat, I will offer to you a few remarks upon a subject which has created no little excitement. I allude to the "act" "further to provide for the collection of duties upon imports," for my vote in favor of the passage of which, the harshest epithets of censure and crimination have been lavished upon me. When that act was passed, the ordinance of the convention was in force, by which all protective tariff acts were declared "null and void, and no law, and all contracts, promises and obligations made or entered into with purpose to secure the duties imposed by the said acts, and all judicial proceedings which shall be hereafter had in affirmance thereof, shall be held utterly null and void." This ordinance came into operation from and after the 1st day of Februrary, 1833, from which period, it interdicted "appeals from the state courts to the supreme court, in any cases within the purview of the ordinance," required "all persons holding, or hereafter elected to any offices, civil or military, under the state, (members of the legislature excepted), to take an oath to execute the ordinance," and forbade jurors to be impannelled, unless they swore "well and truly to obey, execute and enforce it." If this ordinance was constitutional, congress had no right to interfere with it. If it was unconstitutional, they were bound to endeavor to defeat it. For the reasons which I have already submitted to you, as well as for many others which are familiar to you, congress entertained no doubts as to the unconstitutionality of the ordinance, they had, therefore, only to deliberate upon the expediency of the measures which they should adopt to prevent its enforcement. Had they been quiescent, they would, impliedly, have conceded, that the ordinanee was constitutional, and that tha federal government could not protect itself: *that* government would, then have been annihilated, for a government which cannot execute its laws, *ceases to be a government*. Upon the passage or rejection of the act of the 2d March, 1833, depended the momentous alternative, whether the federal constitution should exist, or be prostrated at the feet of a dominant party in a state. Happily *for the integrity of the union*, and the honor and salvation of the country, congress was faithful to the trust which was reposed in them, and in their performance of it, kept themselves within the pale of their legitimate powers. Those parts of their act which authorise the employment of military force, (which can, only, be defensively employed), are sanctioned by precedents upon our statute books, during the administrations of gen. Washington and of Jefferson, (the constitutionality and expediency of which are admitted), authorising the employment of that species of coercion, under less guarded restrictions, and under circumstaces much less imperious; and those parts of the act, for which no precedents have been furnished, because the exigencies demanding them had not, previously, occurred, were introduced for the purposes of preventing collision between our citizens, and the shedding of fraternal blood, and to counteract the ordinance of the convention, which set the laws at defiance. Had the president, who is bound to "give to the congress information of the state of the union," and to "take care that the laws shall be faithfully executed," not informed the congress of the desperate legislation of South Carolina, and not recommended those means which were expedient, in order "that the laws might be faithfully executed," he would have been guilty of the violation of his official oath. Had congress, who, by the constitution, "have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution" the powers vested in them, and "in the government of the United States, or in any department or office thereof," not passed an act, without which, the laws of congress could not have been carried into execution, they would have been guilty of a violation of their official duty. The act which was passed in pursuance of these high obligations, (the true character of which, upon a candid examination, will be perceived to be such as I have stated it to be), has, nevertheless, been stigmatized as inconsistent with the principles of freedom, as subversive of the rights of the states, as unconstitutional, ferocious and bloody, as having been recommended by the president, in the spirit of a fiend, that he might execute it, with the malignity of a demon.

The repeal of the ordinance of nullification of November, 1832, must have been produced by some measure of the federal government. But two measures were resorted to by the government; the passage of the tariff act of 2d March, 1833, and of the act for tha collection of duties on imports of the same date. It cannot be presumed, that the repeal was owing to the first mentioned act, because it enforces a protectiva tariff, in diametrical opposition to "the fixed and unalterable resolve of the convention" "that a protecting tariff should be no longer enforced within the limits of South Carolina;" the conclusion, consequently, is irresistible that the repeal is to be attributed to the latter act. By tha passage, therefore, of that act denounced by the convention, as "unauthorised by the constitution, subversive of that constitution, and destructiva of public liberty," the monster nullification was strangled, the march of misrule and anarchy arrested, the supremacy of the constitution and the laws maintained, and the cheering assurance afforded to those who venerate tha constitution and the laws, that our representatives will not be found slumbering upon their posts when the citadel of our liberties is menaced, either by internal foes or by foreign enemies.

Some of the observations which I have submitted to you may appear to be alien to the occasion for which we have met. But it seems to me, that on the anniversary of our national birth day, we ought to take a comprehensiva viaw of the good and evil by which we are surrounded. Thanks to the discernment and patriotism of the people, and to the wisdom and energy of our government, wa have been delivered from the miseries of practical nullification, with which we were recently threatened; but the storm which was raised by its agitators has not yet subsided; the angry passions which they generated have not yet sunk into repose. We have heard it iterated and reiterated—that the battle with the general government is not over, that it has just commenced—that the state cannot protect herself without being armed for resistance—that no state can be sovereign, which permits appeals from her judiciary to the federal courts—that the protective system constitutes but a small part of our controversy with the general government; and in the convention at Columbia, in March last, it was said by a delegate, "if a confederacy of the southern states could now be obtained, should we not deem it a happy termination of our long struggle for our rights against oppression?" When sentiments and declarations such as these are avowed, unabated firmness and vigilance are still requisite on the part of those who believe that the federal constitution is calculated to effect the great objects for which it was formed, in order to counteract any open or secret machinations, by which we may be deprived of the inestimable benefits of that constitution, and by which the union may be torn into fragments, and a southern confederation created from its mangled members. Vigilance and firmness ought to be exacted by all, who would deprecate the success of a revolution, of which the inevitable concomitants and consequences would be—anarchy, intestine war, and military despotism. The members of this society, which bears the name of WASHINGTON, ara peculiarly called upon to be foremost whenever tha union is endangered. Professing ourselves to be disciples of Washington, we should imbibe a portion of that spirit which animated him when alive; like him, in the worst of times, we should never despair of the republic; like him, we should dedicate our days and our nights, our hands and our hearts, to the preservation of the honor and the security of our common country, and like him, we should resolve, either to conquer in the cause of independence, liberty and union, or to perish in the glorious conflict.

Colonel Drayton concluded with a farewell address to the society, in which he spoke in appropriate terms, of their meritorious exertions to serve the cause which they had espoused, in spite of the terrors of proscription, and tha discouragement inseparable from an organized majority, which controled and directed the power and patronage of the state—gratefully thanked them for their disinterested and persevaring support of himself—requested them to receive his warmest wishes for their individual welfare and happiness, and to believe that he entertained towards them, personal respect and esteem—expressed his fervent hopes that the dark clouds which now lowered over our political horizon, would be dissipated, by the interposition of the Omnipotent and merciful Being, who wielded the destinies of man and of nations—assured the society, that wherever he might be, and whatever might be his lot, he should always rejoice in the prosperity, and mourn over the adversity of South Carolina, and that he should be ready and willing in any future crisis, to identify himself with her fortunes, and to render to her all the aid, within the sphere of his limited means and talents.

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